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ABSTRACT

The literature reviewed in this document represents a collection of approximately 135 writings catalogued under the heading teacher leadership. The literature on teacher leadership describes a range of new roles which offer ways for teachers to grow as professionals and learn from one another. Some roles focus on inducting new teachers into the profession, such as mentoring or teaching in professional development schools. Other roles center on professional growth for practitioners through, for example, through participation in special-interest networks or in action research projects. Some of the new roles are formal, creating opportunities for career advancement, such as master-teacher appointments or differentiated staffing positions in career-ladder programs. Other roles, both formal and informal, provide opportunities for individual teachers to learn from one another through coaching or advising, support groups, teacher centers, or peer appraisal. The literature also includes descriptions of teachers learning from one another as they work together in groups, sometimes with a focus on instruction (curriculum development or instructional planning teams) and sometimes with a focus on school governance (school improvement teams). (LL)

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TEACHER LEADERSHIP

An Annotated Bibliography

The Danforth Foundation
and
The National Foundation for the Improvement of Education

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Prepared by Nancy Yoder

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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Teacher Leadership
Annotated Bibliography
Introductory Notes

The literature reviewed here is a collection of writings catalogued under the heading of teacher leadership. Although the chapters and articles summarized here touch on many aspects of professional development, the authors or cataloguers of these materials have considered the descriptor "teacher leadership" as central to the identification of these works.

Annotations in this bibliography are close paraphrases, often using some of the author's own words and phrasing, to convey both accurate information and a sense of the writer's approach to his or her topic.

The literature on teacher leadership describes a range of new roles for teachers, roles which offer ways for teachers to grow as professionals and to learn from each other. Some roles focus on inducting new teachers into the profession, such as mentoring or teaching in professional development schools. Other roles center on professional growth for practitioners, through, for example, participation in special-interest networks or in action-research projects. Some of the new roles are formal, creating opportunities for career advancement, such as master-teacher appointments or differentiated staffing positions in career-ladder programs. Other roles, both formal and informal, provide opportunities for individual teachers to learn from each other through coaching or advising, support groups, teacher centers, or peer appraisal. The teacher leadership literature also includes descriptions of teachers learning from each other as they work together in groups, sometimes with a focus on instruction (curriculum-development or instructional-planning teams) and sometimes with a focus on school governance (school improvement teams).

A difficulty in reading the teacher leadership literature annotated here stems from the use of the same terms to describe different approaches. The word empowerment, for instance, is used by some writers to describe structured opportunities provided by administrators (teachers making curriculum content decisions through newly formed curriculum-development committees). Other writers view teacher empowerment as an aspect of redistributing authority and accountability throughout the school, so empowerment may involve teachers in decision making in instruction and governance. It may also involve them in forging new kinds of relationships with principals, other administrators, and their fellow teachers. For a few writers, empowerment is self-initiated; teachers see a

need and respond, creating their own support groups, their own school schedule, or job description, or school-improvement plan. For some, empowerment is bestowed; for others, it is negotiated, and for a few, it is assumed and simply acted on. Another example: for some writers, a master teacher has a formal position with specific responsibilities different from his or her colleagues; for other writers, a master teacher is a colleague recognized informally as a model for his or her peers. Similar language, may at first reading, mask different assumptions for teachers' roles.

In the annotated bibliography as a whole, there are numerous tensions among different writers' conceptualizations of the roles of teacher leaders. Those tensions include:

- roles created by existing school authorities (principals, district offices, school boards, states) and roles created by teachers themselves;
- roles created to contribute to an existing school structure (lead teacher, program facilitator) and roles which may change the existing school structure (school governance teams or teacher-as-researcher);
- roles which differentiate teachers from each other (master teacher, lead teacher) and roles which are collaborative or supportive relationships among equals (advisor, coach);
- roles which depend on maintaining existing school relationships (the need for a principal's support) and those which change relationships (teachers accepting a colleague as a reviewer in a performance appraisal);
- roles which focus on instruction (action research in one's own classroom) and roles which focus on school governance (budgeting and personnel issues on school-management teams);
- roles which focus teachers on their own students, classroom and school and roles which take teachers out of the classroom and perhaps even out of the school;
- roles which focus on classroom and school directly (curriculum changes, pedagogical research) and roles which impact school and classroom indirectly (fundraising for staff-development

projects, advocacy for programs or legislation);

- roles for which teachers need training from experts (leadership training or other kinds of staff development) and roles which assume teachers already have expertise to share with others;

- roles described in technical-rational language (joint decision making and accountability; mentoring for career advancement) and roles described in relational language (consensus, collaboration, and mentoring for professional and personal growth); and

- roles for purposes of improving adults' lives in schools (career ladder programs) and roles for purposes of improving student learning (instructional teams).

There is little tension among writers in one area: new roles for teachers require time--time for developing, training, experimenting, revising, talking, sharing, and doing and time spent with each other as colleagues, not with students.

Teacher Leadership
Annotated Bibliography

Anderson, Donald P. et al. (1988, Jan). *Partnerships in the Professional Development of Teachers.* Panel presentation presented at National Holmes Group Meeting, Washington, D.C.

ERIC Abstract: A report is given on a collaborative effort by Ohio State University's College of Education, the Columbus School District, and the Columbus Education Association which was developed to implement the Holmes Group reform agenda. The agreement covers services such as field experience sites, experimental settings, cooperating teachers, and undergraduate and graduate course credit. As the District and the Columbus Education Association create new professional growth opportunities for teachers, the College helps to plan and develop them. The structure for these professional development opportunities is a peer assistance and review program (PAR), a comprehensive system of observation, coaching, counseling, and professional assistance that is nested in a peer-review process and is governed by a panel consisting of four teachers and three administrators. Specific program areas include: extended teacher preparation programs, creation of a career ladder program, evolution of a peer assistance and review program, and development of a graduate program for teacher leaders. Included in the report are detailed descriptions of the PAR program and the Columbus Instructional Model, as well as an overview of a graduate program for specialists in professional development. (JD)

Barrick, R. Kirby. (1988, Nov-Dec). Teachers can lead and still be teachers. Vocational Education Journal, 63 (8) 30-31.

Notes: "Teachers should become part of the school leadership structure, and administrators should help it happen." (30) Teachers are most effective when they are involved. Teachers will respond positively to administrators when decisions are made based on information that the teachers also shared. Teachers are motivated when they are involved in the planning of a new program. When administrators allow teachers time to participate in making decisions about school policy and to contribute ideas, teachers become integral parts of the school culture. Administrators must

also learn to share their authority. This enables the teacher to find common ground among the school's goals and their goals. If teacher leadership is put into action, teachers will be instrumental in implementing change and improving the educational process.

Barth, Roland S. (1990). *Improving Schools From Within.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

ERIC Abstract: Although much has been written about school reform in the past decade, insufficient attention has been given to the important relationships among the adults within the school and to a consideration of how their abundant trapped energy, inventiveness, and idealism might be encouraged. This book addresses this deficiency by emphasizing schooling's fundamental purpose--learning for everyone. Chapter 1 discusses the widespread lack of confidence in public education, especially the crisis of self-confidence and the primitive, depleting relationships among school staff. In chapter 2, the relationship between teachers and administrators is closely examined. The third chapter considers collegiality and its importance in promoting learning and improving schools. Chapters 5 and 6 discuss teachers and principals as adult learners, examine sources of resistance to serious engagement in learning, and suggest ways to remove these obstacles by rearranging some persistent elements of school culture. Chapter 7 discusses the author's work with principals ' centers, and chapter 8 deals with the extraordinary benefits of writing about practice. Chapter 9 addresses the complicated relationship between universities and schools and offers ideas for a more fruitful collaboration. Chapter 10 considers school leadership, arguing that everyone within a school is capable of leading and becoming an active member in "a community of leaders." The final two chapters discuss the importance of vision in improving schools. An index is included. (38 references) (MLH)

Additional Notes: Primarily a compilation of papers noted in this bibliography, Barth's book addresses his central concerns in school reform, including the crisis of confidence in public education, the relationship between teacher and principal, collegiality, the failure of outside reform efforts, school as a community of learners, adults as learners, overcoming obstacles to change, the work of the Harvard principals' center, the benefits of writing about schools, the relationship of schools and universities, teacher and principal leadership, and the importance of vision. His personal vision centers

on school as a community of learners, and includes collegiality, risktaking, recommitment, respect for diversity, a place for philosophers, humor, a community of leaders, low anxiety and high standards. Personal visions of school people often differ from the visions of those outside of schools but need to be taken seriously and are needed to reform schools; school people will not be serious change agents for someone else's vision. "When we create schools we value for our children and ourselves, we will have created schools of value to others as well." (179)

Barth, Roland S. (1980). *Run School Run.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Notes: This book addresses what Barth sees as a major problem in American education, "how to create cooperative institutions, characterized by mutual respect and learning, in a pluralistic society...." (xvii). Using examples from a school in which he was principal, Barth proposes diversity rather than uniformity, claiming diversity in schools is a renewable resource that can minimize dissonance and maximizing learning. Barth recommends alternative schools, alternatives in schools, and alternative people (those who can develop distinctive forms of instruction). In organization, Barth proposes two-person teams and school organization to foster diversity in teaching, with a placement process to match children with the teachers they will learn from best. In the instructional program, Barth's school made curriculum connections for children by connecting teachers, then supported the curriculum with the hidden curriculum of a supportive and clear social climate. Barth considers parent involvement in three categories--help, critical examination, and adversarial action, saying we must learn to apportion responsibilities to do what few parents and schools now do well, work together. Pluralistic evaluation systems are more effective than uniform ones. About staff development: nothing has more impact on children than the growth of teachers; everything in this book is a part of staff development, which should promote interdependence, resourcefulness, responsibility, and self-examination. A discussion of principal leadership says leadership is the interaction of a person and context in a concrete situation but, in general, the elements of leadership are working for individualization, learning which problems are problems, learning to wait, learning to reduce fear, selective risk taking, independence and interdependence. The costs of shared power can be risky but encourage adulthood and help teachers help children become agents

of their own learning. Conditions that promote principal effectiveness include school size, distribution of power, school site management, training, support from parents, students, staff, central office, other principals, and from outside the system. Significant change for schools will come from reweaving the social fabric of schools and establishing a measure of self-determination, conditions that foster wise use of responsibility. Schools can be both diverse and stable, important for a pluralistic society.

Barth, Roland S. (1988, May). Principals, teachers, and school leadership. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 69, (9), 639-42.

ERIC Abstract: Teachers harbor extraordinary leadership capabilities--a major untapped resource for improving U.S. schools. This article explains how principals can share leadership by articulating goals, entrusting and relinquishing authority, involving teachers in decision-making, assigning responsibilities wisely, sharing responsibility for both success and failure, believing in teachers, and admitting ignorance. (MLH)

Additional Notes: Barth has been developing a personal vision of a school he would like to attend and have his daughters attend. The shared leadership concept has become both fashionable and controversial; now "touting teachers as leaders is not a comfortable stand" but he thinks "all teachers can lead" if we can overcome the impediments that block teachers from leading and if we can provide conditions under which teachers will exercise leadership. (640)

When he was a principal, shared leadership was delegating but now he sees a school as "a community of leaders." "Leadership is making what you believe in happen" and everyone should have an opportunity for leadership. The fate of teacher leadership lies in the relationships between principals and their faculties.

Steps Toward Shared Leadership:

- Articulating the Goal
- Entrusting (not taking back power when things get rough)
- Involving teachers in decision making
- Assigning responsibilities wisely(including giving responsibility to inexperienced people who may solve problems imaginatively, a good kind of staff development)
- Shared responsibility for failure

Attributing success to the teacher
Believing in teachers
Admitting ignorance

A community of leaders is not an impossibility. He cites NEA and NASSP's joint publication *Ventures in Good Schooling* which urges establishing collaborative schools. His examples of "democratic schools" are Brookline HS and Andover HS in MA and Hanover High School in New Hampshire that have governance modeled on town meetings, small schools in Alaska, parochial schools under "servant leadership," Friends schools that operate on the basis of the Quaker belief that every one has an inner light with something to offer the group and something to learn from others. There is little to suggest that public schools are becoming communities of leaders. The idea is a star to give purpose and direction to efforts.

Barth, Roland S. (1987, March). *School: A Community of Leaders.* Paper presented at the 3rd Annual Spring Conference of the Georgia State University Principals' Institute, Atlanta. Later published in Ann Lieberman, (Ed.), (1988), *Building a Professional Culture in Schools.* New York: Teachers College Press.

ERIC Abstract: Teachers can take effective schoolwide leadership roles if the principal encourages each teacher to take responsibility for an aspect of school life that the individual teacher cares strongly about. Such opportunities to engage in school leadership are attractive for teachers because (1) they offer possibilities for improving teaching conditions; (2) they replace the solitary authority of the principal with a collective authority; (3) they provide a constructive format in which the school's adults can interact and overcome their daily classroom isolation; (4) they help transform schools into learning contexts for adults as well as for children; and (5) they make teachers feel and become more important and professional in the eyes of students, other teachers, parents, administrators, and themselves. To encourage teachers to take leadership roles, principals should (1) make it clear that they want to see a community of leaders develop; (2) relinquish some power; (3) support the teachers to whom responsibility has been delegated; (4) involve teachers in decision making; (5) give responsibility not to teachers already proven responsible, but to teachers interested in the issues concerned; (6) accept a share of the responsibility for failures while allowing the teacher credit for successes; (7) admit their needs for help; and (8) seek ways to enhance their own self-

confidence. Reviewing the experiences of small, democratically-organized schools around the country can provide insight into how communities of leadership can be developed. (PGD)

Additional Notes: Barth considers the idea of school as a community of leaders by examining what teachers and principals might do in such a school. After describing a teacher who took the lead in fire safety at his school, Barth says each teacher can be chief of something. He discusses aspects of the teacher leader debate, including that many feel teaching and leadership are exclusive; that there are few opportunities for teachers to lead; that some do not want to; that when some lead, others resist; that rewards for leadership are illusory; that sharing leadership leads to ownership and commitment. Opportunities for school leadership are attractive to some teachers because leadership improves teaching conditions, creates collective authority, overcomes isolation, transforms schools into contexts for adults as well as children.

Principals are seen as leaders because of their position. When he and two other principals agreed generally that teacher leadership was a positive, they devised these guidelines for principals to promote teacher leadership: articulate the goal, relinquish power, empower and entrust, involve teachers before decisions are made, carefully consider which responsibility goes to whom, share responsibility for failure, permit the teacher to enjoy responsibility for success, recognize that all teachers can lead, be willing to say I don't know. A precondition for the development of a community of leaders is the security of the principal, addressing their own needs for recognition, success, and security.

The school as a community of leaders vision is not a fantasy. The vision is described in the NEA's *A Vision of Good Schooling*, small schools that use town-meeting governance, Alaskan schools, parochial schools with servant leadership, Quaker schools with participatory membership, but not in public schools, though the community of leaders can hold out a vision for change.

Barth, Roland S. (1986, March). The principal and the profession of teaching. *The Elementary School Journal,* 86 (4), 471-492.

ERIC Abstract: Examines ways principals can make more effective use of their central place in the professionalizing of teaching. Suggests that principals ought to create environments that enable

teachers to discover their own skills and talents. Principals' support groups and centers can be helpful in facilitating this process. (DR)

Additional Notes: Teaching is very difficult. People who have little professional mobility and who do the same thing year after year become hardened.

Thinking about teaching as a profession usually calls for salaries, merit pay, career ladders, and raising certification requirements but these things are outside of school and remedies do not impact the school ethos.

Barth is convinced that the success of a school depends on the interactions, relationships of the adults who inhabit it. "Changes in the relationship between teachers and principal and among teachers can contribute to the professionalization of teaching."(472)

Collegiality: an emphasis on accountability, pupil minimum competence, parent involvement, and collective bargaining have put strains on teacher-principal relations and increased litigation. An absence of professionalism among teachers is symbolized by a sign on a lounge door that students aren't allowed and the unwritten rule that there is no talking about teaching in the teachers' room. Barth calls relationships among adults in most schools "primitive." Lortie found teacher satisfaction comes from interaction with students but working with adults usually means dealing with hindrances Collegiality is not mentioned much in the effective school literature of the past decade nor is it part of the vocabulary of recent national studies of education.

Adult relationships in school take several forms independent parallel play, and three kinds of interaction: adversarial relationships (which may make parallel play a "welcome alternative"), competitive relationships (which he says typically take the form of withholding), and collegial. Collegial relationships are the least common kind of adult relationship, are not the same as congeniality. Barth quotes Little to define collegiality as the presence of four behaviors: talk about the practice of teaching and learning, observation of each other doing it, working on the curriculum together, and teaching each other what each needs and wants to know. Most good schools he has been in have cooperative collegial relationships.

Principals who hold collegiality as a goal can help schools move toward it. Barth quotes Little that the norms of collegiality are related to four specific behaviors of principals: explicitly stating expectations that teachers will cooperate with one another, providing a model by joining with teachers to improve the school, rewarding collegiality by granting release time, space, funds, whatever it takes, and protecting teachers who operate collegially and draw the ire of fellow teachers.

One of his ways to counter the "taboo" against collegiality that exists in some schools was to hold meetings in different teachers' rooms and ask them to host and describe some of their practices. He also placed students depending on which teacher provides the conditions for learning that seems to match the kid best and teachers had to collaborate in the sending of kids on to the next teacher. He thinks the optimal number of adults working together for children is two--one gets lonely and large teams spend time and energy in meetings and arriving at agreements.

A second building block of teacher professionalism over which principals have particular influence is making important decisions, e.g., sabbaticals, changes in work, spending money (money is a symbol of confidence; also gives people some resources with which to exercise responsibility), curriculum.

"The biggest problem besetting schools is the primitive quality of human relationships among the children, parents, teachers, and administrators. Many schools perpetuate infantilism. School boards infantilize superintendents; superintendents, principals; principals, teachers; and teachers, children. This results in children and adults who frequently behave like infants, complying with authority because of fear or dependence, waiting until someone's back is turned to do something "naughty." To the extent that teachers become responsible for their own teaching, they not only help children become responsible for their own learning, they also become professional." (476-477)

Schools are too big and complex for any one person to run alone; school leadership can be considered not just in terms of roles but also in terms of functions. In schools the teachers look after their classrooms and the principal looks after the organization but Barth thinks all people should look after their organizations, so has teachers doing tasks like schedules and budgets.

Teachers as visionaries, contemplating what schools should be and what children should learn and what teaching could become, is sorely missing from the profession. Ideas about what makes a good or effective school abound but come from outside schools which make teachers, principals defensive. But school people have ideas about what makes a good school and their visions should be honored because "massive research studies stand little chance of having a major and direct influence on schools" (478) and their own ideas are the ones they will take seriously. Also massive research studies are "a mile wide but only an inch deep" but school people have deep knowledge of their own schools. The third reason is that it is satisfying to implement your own vision, not someone else's with whom you might not agree. "The greatest tragedy I know is to be caught every day in the position of doing something that one does not want to do or does not believe in. Too many educators are playing out this tragedy--functioning as assembly-line robots whose main business is production, not learning. This condition, more than everything else, diminishes professionalism in the public schools."

There are two workable strategies for improving schools: getting teachers and principals to close the gap between the way their schools are and the way outsiders want them to be and closing the gap between the way schools are and the way people inside the schools want them to be; the second defines a professional.

School is a place where all people are learners; teacher growth is related to student growth, but professional development of teachers should also be an end in itself. Most school districts operate in a deficiency model for staff development; the most effective way is school-based and principals can contribute.

Teachers as mentors--teachers should be providers as well as consumers of information; their "craft knowledge" can contribute and it gives them satisfaction. Teachers sometimes think knowledge and skills are private matters; principals can help them share.

Teachers and quality control--A principal can set high expectations for teachers, ensuring that everyone moves toward them. Part of his vision of teacher professionalism is that teachers accept responsibility for the performance of their colleagues.

Barth thinks the principal holds a place of "central influence" over the professionalization of teaching. (483) Powerful forces in school culture work against teacher professionalism. The consequence of patriarchal model of leadership is dependence but what teachers need is flexibility and imagination; they need to be coalition builders. The school principal has a "disproportionate influence on what teachers teach and students learn" so we need better preservice training, improved selection processes, and improved opportunities for practicing principals. The Harvard Principal Center works in the last area.

The old model of principal training which includes observing good principals in good schools and devising training programs to promote their positive traits is compelling but doesn't work very well. The culture of school says it is "immoral" for principals to be learners, they are to be serving, not being served and it is hard to reveal one's self as in need of help. Principals are not seen as learners. "Learning always begins one run on the ladder below the teacher. Teachers want children to learn but see their own learning as less necessary. Principals want teachers to learn but do not believe that a math workshop is appropriate for principals. Superintendents want principals to shape up, but few engage seriously in their own professional development. And so it goes. The moral order of the school places the principal in authority as knower: the principal as learner is out of place." (486) When they learn something new they may have to do something with it, like change a schedule, and are rewarded for learning with more work. Barth is convinced the most important characteristic of a school leader and professional is that of being a learner. There is "a striking connection" between learning and collegiality because we learn from each other.

At the Harvard Principal's Center principals are involved in designing all aspects of their own professional development. The Center does not ask what principals should know and be able to do but under what conditions they become committed lifetime learners and professionals.

Implications for the profession of teaching include "reaffirmation of the importance of teacher centers that elevate teaching as the center has elevated the profession of principals." (487)

Barth thinks what principals experience carries over to their schools so that strengthening principals' professionalism

strengthens teachers' professionalism too. "Principals alone cannot make a profession of teaching. And teachers alone cannot professionalize their work. But principals and teachers working together can create an ecology of reflection, growth, and professionalism." (487)

Bellamore, Crescent C. et al. (1989, Oct.). Sharing leadership improved our school. *Journal of the New York State School Boards Association*, 29, 6-8.

Notes: Public education offers opportunities for shared leadership because they are designed to embody democratic principles but until recently decisions were made by boards and administrators. Today's educators face new problems, especially issues of equity and excellence, which demand shared leadership. The term teacher empowerment may be difficult to define or thwarted by political needs but shared leadership and shared decisionmaking include that all members of the educational community's ideas are of equal value "so liong as those ideas go beyond opinion and reflect the judgments of informed persons." (7)

Bay Shore's model for shared leadership includes long-range planning, staff development, and commitment. The long-range plan is an instructional document including supporting features of the instructional program; its creation molds teams and commitment. Staff development is extensive, is related to program and curriculum development through preparing staff to participate in program and curriculum activities. Commitment comes from working hard,modeling, and providing resources.

Bergen, Timothy J., Jr. (1991, Fall-Win). Teacher empowerment: Community spirit can make the difference. *School Community Journal* ,1, (2), 25-32.

ERIC Abstract: Although democratic school administration offers great promise, U.S. education cannot reach its full stature through intraprofessional advancement only. As transmitters and sifters of our cultural heritage, teachers have serious community obligations. To stimulate social progress, counteract antischool forces, and widen children's learning environment, teachers must boldly extend their influences into the community proper. (seven references) (MLH)

Berliner, David C. *If teachers were thought of as executives--implication for teacher preparation and certification.* Washington, D.C.: Dingle Associates, Inc, 1983

ERIC Abstract: This exploration of an analogic conception of classrooms as workplaces and teachers as executives is divided into five parts. The origin of the author's interest in executive and management skills in teaching is described first. This is followed by analysis of the unfortunate history of the relationship between business management and education. Presented thereafter is a description of current conceptions of management and the role of executives in today's business world. The fourth and largest section presents a review of recent research on teaching, with an emphasis on the similarities between a teacher's role and that of an executive. The compatibility of a conception of the teacher as executive with both educational thought and contemporary cognitive psychology is noted. The last section presents implications of this kind of analysis for the training and supervision of teachers. Despite the obvious dangers, it is concluded that the teaching profession could be enhanced by a serious examination of the conception of teachers as executives. (Author/TE)

Additional Notes: Classrooms are workplaces and teachers can be considered executives. Part 1, the origin of the author's interest: discovering a management seminar next door to an education meeting he was attending, Berliner visited and heard similarities between education and business executives' concerns

Part 2, a history of the relationship between education and business: At the turn of the century, the popular press indicted the schools for failure, especially inefficiency. Engineer Fredrich Taylor and followers proposed a scientific rational model for organizational efficiency. Taylor conducted extensive scientific experiments in business but educators did not conduct similar research when these ideas were implemented in schools. Modern management theory is more compatible with life in educational organizations the new model proposes that people make decisions that are satisfying if not necessary optimal, and educational researchers are willing and able to study educational practices so "although the marriage of education and management was, historically, an unfortunate one, it may be possible to now think of a rapprochement." (7)

Part 3, current conceptions of the executive role: modern management is a creative art, not Theory X with an emphasis on control but Theory Y which includes commitment enjoyment of work, seeking responsibility. General parallels with the classroom teacher include 1) managers with command over people, 2) problems with burnout, 3) producing changes using available resources.

Part 4, similarities between a teacher's and an executive's role: In teaching or business, executive functions include:
1. planning—Teachers plan yearly, monthly, weekly, and daily. They choose content, schedule time, form groups, choose activity structures with functions and operations, showing great sensitivity to a complex dynamic situation, which includes using compensation, strategic leniency, power sharing, progressive checking, and suppressing emotions.
2. communicating goals—Teachers communicate goals by structuring and communicating expectancies, in classrooms and throughout the school.
3. regulating the activities of the workplace—teachers regulate six factors which affect student achievement: pacing, sequencing events, monitoring success rate, controlling time, running an orderly and focused workplace, preventing or controlling behavior problems.
4. creating a pleasant environment for work—with factors such as politeness, mutual respect, and cooperative learning
5. educating new members of the work group—a managerial area done systematically in business and ignored in education; new students enter a new culture and need to be socialized, through assessing ability, assessing metacognitive functions, and teaching rules.
6. articulating the work of the site with other units in the system—articulating classroom processes with district goals as well as present with previous and subsequent curriculum.
7. supervising and working with other people—an executive function not now done often among teachers
8. motivating those being supervised
9. evaluating the performance of those being supervised
The author does not comment on numbers 8 and 9 because the literature is extensive and familiar.
10. developing and managing money—seldom part of a teacher's role and not part of teacher training

Part 5: implications for teacher training: executive functions are necessary but not sufficient for effective teaching. The term executive is preferable to manager, because management in

education usually means classroom and deviancy control. Future teachers could profit from formal training in executive roles, including considering Japanese style Theory Z leadership (including lifetime jobs, internal promotions, metaphors of family, shared decisionmaking, and shared responsibility). Modern management can be a source of useful ideas but it is not always compatible with educational philosophy. Root metaphors are powerful. Jackson's metaphors of teacher as supply sergeant and traffic cop are limiting; those as mother or father earth or nurturing but custodial; those of information givers, limited by ideas that only teachers teach; A more consistent image is that of executive, which may lead to a new prestige and pay for teachers.

Bird, T., & Little, J. W. (1985, September). *From teacher to leader: Training and support for instructional leadership by teachers.* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Far West Abstract: Leadership by teachers is a necessary but novel component of the advancement of teaching. As most schools now are organized, few teachers can have acquired the perspectives, skills, identities, or standing of instructional leaders. Prospective leaders among teachers will require both training and continuing support to use that training. In the absence of behavioral models, sustaining norms, and familiar practices of leadership, teachers and new teacher-leaders are being asked, in effect, to create the organization in which they can play their new roles. Training and support activities can be designed to provide them greater direct assistance in doing so. Prominent options are to organize identity groups in which new teacher-leaders can define their positions and support each other to enact them, and or organize faculty groups in which teachers can discover the advantages of and means for using the leaders in their ranks. This essay explores the task and the options from the points of view of district officials, new teacher-leaders, teachers, and principals.

Additional Notes: The authors open with three impressions: that the task of identifying and correcting teacher incompetence has gotten too much attention, is not a good route to school improvement; that the larger and more important task is continual improvement of the majority of good to excellent teachers and the need for their instructional leadership is "nearly unavoidable" in the face of so many groups promoting it; that promoting teacher leadership is frustrating because good teachers often resist participating, which

may mean forming leadership among teachers is more difficult, or is "a different sort of task, than it was thought to be." (1)

Current efforts to produce teacher leadership include 1) recognizing, rewarding, and retaining excellent teachers, 2) incorporating recent research into teaching practice (which requires close support), 3) reducing the isolation of teachers (with a tension in the conception—do teachers advance together as a group or do some emerge? is teaching an individual activity or a collective undertaking?). "Conceptions of the teaching occupation are at stake." (2)

After exploring options for labels and titles, the authors choose the term master teacher as the most ambitious and inclusive. Consideration of training for master teachers includes two content areas—for work in classrooms and for work with other adults. For quality, training must include opportunities for application, implementation support.

Master teachers must build relationships with teachers and both sides may be reluctant in their new roles. Teaching is complex, requires reciprocity in instrumental relations. Building the relationship must consider 1) teaching as a performance, which requires coaching.

Coaching is mutual accomplishment demanding reciprocity. One requirement is asserting leadership: accepting of difference between master and teacher, with assertion by master and deference by teacher. Few selection procedures are examples of readily accepted ways to identify people as masters. Another aspect is displaying leadership: master must display competence and teacher must respond by trying some improvement. A third aspect is maintaining leadership: over the long term "the master teacher's performance must improve with the teacher's, and by essentially the same means." (10) Less demanding exchanges may not justify the difference in status. They must end up dealing with the core issue—improving teaching for the benefit of students.

Getting beyond the issues of relationships to the core purpose is difficult. Master teachers and teachers need support from their organizations, which can mean creating an organization in which their respective roles are "understood, normal, and valued." (12) Groups and schools are the smallest groups within which norms can

be addressed; support might have two main objectives for organizing—building identity groups and building faculty groups.

District officials need to do the imposing task of combining policies and programs to promote induction of teachers into master teachers and to organize the position of master teacher in schools.

Master teachers are not a new component which can be "plugged into" an existing structure. Parties involved in schooling are contesting over influence on teachers/teaching. For administrators, master teachers imply two things—administrators will be more involved in instruction and administrators will share influence. District administrators will need to coordinate. Master teachers need to do important work, with common aims for all teachers and with individual teachers, though at first master teachers may need specialties (general ability to respond to varied individual requests may be too much to ask). "Choosing the right thing for master teachers to do is as important as training them to do it right." (16)

After discussing the pros and cons of training master teachers within and outside the group of other teachers, the authors outline an approach to joint training which can help to define the new role and offer suggestions for incorporating the new role into already-existing training programs.

Issues new master teachers must confront and need support for include (1) readiness—one can't pretend to be just another teacher, must grapple with issues of influence, vision, motivation, tradeoffs (2) identification—the need to build an identity group; (3) models—the need to explore modeling from and for each other, distinguish between principal and master teacher roles, have leadership from district officials.

Issues teachers must confront and need support for include their initial reactions to leadership initiatives (their relative decline in status, their skepticism, attempts to minimize status differences, dealing with ambiguity). Advocates of teacher leadership must attend to teachers' public views and actions, work visibly to find constructive approaches. Reasons why teachers might want teacher leaders include the support and stimulation to make teaching a lifetime career, the transmission of teacher lore, recognition, advancing educational research, increased influence in school and

district, opportunities to pursue important aims rather than through management via fixed standards; all could be approached from the position that "an increase in stature for some teachers can help to increase the stature of all." (24)

"To what degree and in what ways is teaching a personal enterprise or a collective enterprise?" (24) Master teachers make sense only when based in a body of shared aims and practices, which implies greater collective influence on and scrutiny of classroom practices. Differences in skills are seen as weaknesses in individual teachers but in a group are signs of substantial craft needing to be mastered.

In dealing with the unknowns, teachers need trust, in intentions (no harm is intended), in agreements (mutually understood aims and procedures), in norms (mutual obligations). Movement from the first to the third kind of trust is movement from personal to interpersonal to professional interaction.

We need to consider making the examination of teaching feasible (hesitation to speak and lead is an organizational condition, is rational behavior under many circumstances). Rather than suspending judgment, we need an approach of curiosity about teaching. We need to speak of teaching as separate from the individual teacher. We need faculty groups, (sizable groups pursuing long-term experiments) initiatives in unions (projecting an area of common interest and choosing tactics which will support the welfare of teachers), initiatives in schools (faculty cooperation in specific activities such as inservice training).

Issues for principals include the task of uniting multiple efforts by different groups, reconciling the new master teacher role with the principal role, clarifying how principals lead instruction, providing consistency and propriety in what is asked of master teachers, dealing with issues of evaluation and support such as personnel actions, confidentiality, discretion, tone (formal and informal norms), arranging the school organization to make teacher leadership possible, and promoting the new role (through describing it, modeling it, supporting it, sanctioning it, defending it).

The authors' summary includes a restatement of the purpose of the essay, to discuss why creating teacher leadership is hard and to suggest ways to make it more feasible.

Especially interesting bits pulled from the authors' end notes: from note 5, "the difficulties in forming leadership by teachers are more usefully described as tasks to be accomplished than as barriers to be overcome." (44); from note 11, interviews with leaders revealed them all to be dealing with the same tension, "between the obligations leaders feel to earn their titles by doing important work well and the obligations teachers feel, as inheritors of a profoundly egalitarian profession, to diminish status differences among them." (46)

Boles, Katherine C. (1992, April). *School Restructuring by Teachers: The Teaching Project at the Edward Devotion School.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: Findings of a study that examined the role of teacher leadership in school restructuring are presented in this paper. The teacher restructuring project implemented at an elementary school in Brookline, Massachusetts, was based on team teaching, school-university collaboration, integrated remediation, and alternative teacher roles. Methodology involved interviews with project teachers, the principal, and administrators; document analysis; and onsite observation. Findings indicate that teachers' low status and lack of formal authority hindered effective leadership. Factors for successful teacher leadership included principal support, strong communicative and administrative skills, an understanding of organizational culture, and a reexamination of traditional patterns of power and authority in school systems. Conclusions are that: (1) teachers can successfully initiate school change; (2) any change affects other parts of the organization, whose support must be enlisted for success; and (3) colleges and schools involved in a cooperative project must be willing to risk significant structural alteration. That a small, liberal school encountered difficulties in restructuring implies a greater challenge for larger, less flexible school systems. (Contains 49 references.) (LMI)

Additional Notes: This paper reviews five years of the Teaching Project at Edward Devotion School, a restructuring effort developed by two teachers to change the work of teachers, to improve preservice education, and to mainstream special needs students more effectively. The paper looks in particular at teacher leadership in school restructuring—tracing the development of teacher

leadership in the project, cataloguing the ingredients, highlighting benefits and drawbacks, noting problems and needed supports.

The Teaching Project has four components: team teaching, 2) school/university collaboration, 3) integrated remediation for special needs students, 4) alternative roles for teachers.

Teacher leadership is seen in different ways, but in all versions it is intertwined with professionalization and empowerment. It is not new, but includes teachers exerting influence beyond their classrooms. A form of teacher leadership which is relatively new is one in which teachers take the initiative to redesign their work.

Even though reform reports in the 1980's proposed a variety of ways to reorganize, there are still few models, and formulating programs has not been seen as the teachers' role; it is the teacher's job to carry out plans developed by others. Although powerless in determining policy, they are not powerless in implementing it, often exercising negative power rather than positive power for change, so is important to examine instances of teacher-initiated change. Teacher-initiated reform will be different in this district from other less affluent, less liberal, and less supportive sites, but change is always complex and some factors are common to all situations.

Boles outlines the history of the beginning of the project, noting that the two teachers shared Lieberman's entry characteristics for teacher leaders, yet found their efforts taking "long, hard work" because rigid, segmented school systems are hard to change and the idea of "crossing authority boundaries" is foreign to school culture.(14) During the first year, internal leadership with the project was shared; Troen was seen as more powerful and valuable in realms outside the school, while other team members shared and rotated responsibilities in the building, which enhanced their commitment to the project, although they sometimes did not see themselves as leaders.

As the project expanded, Troen did more in and enjoyed political aspects of leadership, but her efforts to develop new teams with the four components was resisted. She was a teacher with no more formal authority than anyone else and her leadership style may have put her at a disadvantage. At the end of year 3 she resigned as coordinator to return to the classroom and rotate the leadership

position, but shortly the role was eliminated due to lack of funds. The original team noted with surprise and regret that new teams did not use them as a resource. This experience sheds light on how hard it is for teachers to change their own communities. Structures to enable other teachers to learn from original team members were not put in place; the original team could have listened more closely to new teams' concerns. Troen was more interested in spreading the project's components than in developing leadership skills among teachers, so no one was trained to take over or share those responsibilities; during the fourth year the project did not expand. In the face of drastic funding cuts in the fifth year, Troen networked private funds and then a three-year FIRST grant from the federal government to continue and expand the project.

Teacher leadership is complicated by many factors: it is difficult for teachers to emerge as credible forces; when they do, their equal status complicates their efforts to influence peers. But they do have potential for restructuring because teachers are more likely to support plans they develop themselves. Teacher leadership will occur only in isolated places without altering authority patterns in school, encouragement, and specific leadership skill development.

The teachers were asking for many changes all at once but the school and district were generally satisfied with the status quo; the Teaching Project challenged both ends of the hierarchy--the top (used to making decisions) and the bottom (teachers committed to equal status). It was easier to make changes at Boston sites where there was a recognition of crisis. The project competed for scarce funds, was seen as a good idea but not one that was worth the kind of support it needed to thrive. It was never a regular line item in budget. "It was not that the institutions did not support the project; it was that they did not support the project enough" (26) which would have required the institutions to change. "No structural changes were made in either institution, and the project affected a relatively small number of individuals." (26) The project was successful on some fronts but the administration did not share the vision of the founders and did not move to reallocate funds to expand and sustain it.

It is possible for teacher leaders to initiate a substantive school change project but it will affect other parts of the organization and that group must support it to succeed. Also, if school change is to involve colleges and school districts, both institutions must be

willing to examine and change. The environment for the Teaching Project was not hostile to change and change was still hard. "If teachers are not prepared for such challenges, there is even less likelihood that their projects will develop, or come to fruition." (27).

Boles, Katherine, & Troen, Vivian. (1992, Feb). How teachers make restructuring happen. *Educational Leadership,* 49, (5), 53-56.

ERIC Abstract: In Brookline, Massachusetts, two classroom teachers learned that restructuring the teaching profession had to begin with restructuring the school. Discouraged by disappearing colleagues and dissatisfied students, these teachers began a team teaching and internship project called the Learning/Teaching Collaborative and sought ways to further teachers' professional development opportunities. (MLH)

Additional Notes: Boles and Troen began with "a clean slate"--were "tenured teachers, with no power, beholden to no one, and with nothing to lose." They wrote articles for journals, talked to people at conferences around the country, looked for money, tried to form a collaborative with a college. Everything they did gained them visibility and credibility; the networking helped them form coalitions.

The first collaborative team linked Edward Devotion School in Brookline with Wheelock College. They began with one team, added a second team the second year, by year three the superintendent added teams to two other schools and the Wheelock faculty spread the teams to other Boston schools and Simmons College joined the collaboration; by year five two more schools were added.

The Learning/Teaching Collaborative (L/TC) has four objectives: 1) restructure the school's learning environment to provide increased educational opportunities for students; 2) collaborate with preserve training programs to improve the quality and coordination of teacher education curriculums and to lower the teacher-student ratio; 3) improve the school's capacity to serve special needs children by eliminating pull-out programs, which fragment children's school experience 4) provide teachers with opportunities for career advancement within teaching to improve their professional status.

One typical team: four classroom teachers for 3rd and 4th grade, one remediation specialist, and four graduate student interns do intensive planning during team weekly two-hour meetings during the school day and at a monthly five-hour Saturday workshops; children are involved in a "variety of learning configurations" made possible by the team which moves among rooms.

For professional development they use Alternative Professional Teaching (APT). Team members choose one of three roles for themselves: teacher/researcher (researching in their own classes), teacher/trainer (supervises interns and coteaches a graduate seminar), and teacher/curriculum writer. School administration think children benefit from teachers' growth.

Boles, Katherine. (1990). *School restructuring: a case study in teacher empowerment.* Cambridge: Harvard Graduate School of Education, National Center for Educational Leadership.

ERIC Abstract: The Teaching Project at the Edward Devotion School (Massachusetts) is made up of four components: team teaching; school/university collaboration; inclass remediation; and alternative roles for teachers. Four third-and fourth-grade teachers' experiences during the first year of program implementation are examined to highlight potential complexities faced in altering teachers' job responsibilities. Data were collected through interviews and observations, framing the study in a theme of teachers' reactions to shared work. The experience of working together in a restructured environment emerged as the most worthwhile aspect of the project, while problems included restraints on creativity and loss of autonomy. (36 references) (EJS)

Additional Notes: This paper documents the first-year effort of the Teaching Project at Edward Devotion School, specifically to answer the question of how veteran teachers responded to significant alterations in their work.

Teachers' norms changed from isolation to interaction when they joined the Teaching Project; three of the four components required working together. Project founders Troen and Boles devised the four basic components and team members decided how to implement them. All were veterans with more than 15 years experience. Team members determined their roles in a week of planning before school, making decisions by consensus and considering them tentative, with

options to revise them during the school year. The team environment was unique for all; they were used to isolation and independence but joined because it was an opportunity to rethink things and to find support. They were not worried about new roles as researcher, curriculum writer, and teacher/trainer, but were worried about the group nature of the work. At the end of the year, their general response to the changes was overwhelmingly positive

Although in general they responded positively to team teaching, there were drawbacks---there was fragmentation of the school day because of fitting in team work, they were overwhelmed with work, they spent too much time strategizing regarding the politics of a new project and not enough on teaching individual children but they liked having help, thought co-authoring and co-teaching enriched them and made them experiment more, thought each was more accountable to the others. Difficulties occurred when partners were unequally matched. The remediation specialist felt more a part of the school, thought mainstreaming was better for students but lost control over her schedule; different teachers worked out different ways to work with her in the classrooms. Interns were viewed as coteachers; teachers considered this the most successful component of the Teaching Project. Team meetings were important (teachers noted it was unusual to see teachers talking about kids and practice during school hours) but the time was short, tiring, and not always well-focused; once-a-month Saturday all-day meetings were more organized, had less time pressure, and more time to reflect.

When first proposed by Boles and Troen, the project was "dismissed immediately." (40) The superintendent said it was too expensive and he wasn't interested. They raised startup funds through "political maneuvering" with the state, college, and school principal; Troen took on the role of political work but teachers controlled the project through shared responsibility. Teachers often used the words "power to control" their work, were more interested in the work than in policy but their decisions gradually impinged on others' roles and the larger system. On two occasions the team disagreed with the principal and faced the limitations of their authority. On neither occasion did they discuss or clarify positions but realized the principal had power to make decisions which affected the team and could do so without the team's approval, an issue of authority the team has not really begun to address yet. The project had difficulty getting accurate information from the district regarding its budget;

budget control is central in reform, is an important part of leadership to restructure schools.

Teachers cited advantages of the new situation including the elimination of isolation; a common frame of reference, language, and group of students; energy and risk-taking; increased accountability. They noted that the project took more time, energy, and commitment than they expected but the teamwork was both the most challenging and the most rewarding aspect and that teamwork resulted in high quality staff development. They did not like the constraints of a tight schedule, the loss of autonomy, the fragmented day, and the compromises to achieve consensus. Their authority in the whole school did not increase, especially when they came up against the authority of the principal. They realized that political savvy in the district was required. This project was initiated in a liberal, supportive district and change was difficult even here.

Brandt, Ron. (1992, October). On restructuring roles and relationships: A conversation with Phil Schlechty." *Educational Leadership*, 51, (2), 8-11.

Notes: Systemic change is changing norms. There is a shift in the basic purpose of schools which Schlechty calls the 'post office effect"— the postal service promised mail delivery eventually and cheaply but now people want fast, time-certain mail delivery; schools are now expected to teach every kid to do algebra while they are still struggling with making sure each can do basic math

Restructuring and systemic reform are the same. we've restructured in the last five years but we haven't focused on what needs to be restructured— what happens to kids in classrooms That means dealing with time, people, space, knowledge, and technology (for example, nongraded schools and small units inside big schools that are instructional environments). Many of these things have been done but not in a systemic way, so he formed the Center for Leadership in School Reform to develop district level capacity to support school-level change. Total Quality Management will not work if we continue to think of students as products. If we think of the student as a customer for work and work itself as the product, then Deming's TQM is understanding, getting control of, and improving processes. An example of a process that can be controlled is decisionmaking. The adults in schools have to be customer centered: students must be the focus of all activities. The teacher has to be a leader and an

inventor. If teachers are leaders then the principal is a "leader of leaders." (11) The superintendent is the CEO, not to solve problems but to decide which problems are worth solving. Board members should carry on a dialogue with and educate the community, not just represent them.

Brandt, Ron. (1992, Feb). On rethinking leadership: A conversation with Tom Sergiovanni. *Educational Leadership* , 49 (5), 46-49.

ERIC Abstract: Professionalism and leadership are contradictory concepts. Because Maslow and Herzberg studied mostly males, they espoused motivational theories stressing achievement and competitiveness, not caring and nurturing relationships. Although women are underrepresented in principalships, they are over represented in successful ones. Professionalism, norms, moral commitment, and community-building are worthy leadership substitutes. (MLH)

Additional Notes: Our understanding of leadership is outdated. In some settings qualities like norms and commitments and professionalism (with a virtuous component of being compelled from within to excellence) can substitute for leadership.

We may need a leader to develop such qualities but can also change the metaphor for schools from a hierarchical bureaucracy to a community where a different kind of authority compels them. In a community a person with moral authority serves the enterprise, behaves authentically, encourages others to protect the standards, articulates the purposes of the community.

He learned by observing good leaders who felt passionately about something, which was that person's source of moral authority. Technical rationality and psychological approaches aren't as good as sources for authority.

Regarding the overlap between principal leadership and teacher leadership: "I think you worry less about leadership if you think that one of the challenges of leadership is to establish substitutes for it. The more successful we are at establishing substitutes for leadership, the less important it becomes to worry about who are leaders and who aren't." (48)

As a school principal you have to change your mind about how human enterprises work—management matters less than norms. There are five sources of authority--we still have bureaucratic, psychological, and technical-rational, but "competence and virtue should dominate." (49)

"The more leadership is emphasized, the less professionalism flourishes." and "The more professionalism is thriving, the less need there is for leadership." (49) Schools are more like families and small communities than other organizations. With the right substitutes, you can throw leadership away.

Brandt, Ron. (1989, May). On teacher empowerment: A conversation with Ann Lieberman. *Educational Leadership,* 46, (8), 23-26.

ERIC Abstract: Discusses positive developments occurring in the teaching profession and the changes needed to nurture them. Teacher empowerment does not mean banishing principals, but enabling teachers to participate in group decision-making and make key choices affecting their own work. Teachers have always been critical to effective schooling. (MLH)

Additional Notes: Lieberman considers herself a teacher advocate; experts need to consider what it is like to be there.

At the time of the interview she was at the beginning of a Professional Development School grant with the Puget Sound consortium to promote changes in the schools and the university. Originally the Consortium was a grass roots discussion group, then developed into action research led by Lieberman and Pat Wasley.

One strand of teacher empowerment is teacher leadership. Her definition of teacher empowerment is "*real participation by teachers reflecting their vision of participation.*" Her definition for empowerment sounds the same as that for teacher leadership—she says the word empowerment is value laden, using the word power scares people. She is less interested in individual and more interested in "a kind of collective autonomy" which give teachers power to solve problems they can't solve alone.

With parental involvement she expects early tension because the two groups have been divided by the system but the two groups want what is best for kids.

There are signs that things are changing (Holmes Group, Carnegie Commission, ECD reports) but she fears the political energy won't last long enough to let necessary changes grow and mature.

Early models of career ladder and merit pay faltered because they didn't consider school culture.

Unions at one time fought for basic bread and butter issues but now everyone including unions ought to be struggling with new ways of behaving.

Re the concern that teachers do not want to be involved beyond their classrooms: most teachers do care most about their own kids because they are isolated in classrooms now but they can get new skills and attitudes through working collaboratively.

Re the effective schools literature which says good schools have to have strong principals—she thinks both extremes are false: principals do not do wonderful things alone (and teachers were seldom mentioned in the effective schools lit); if we empower teachers, principals won't disappear. She sees the principal's role in the years ahead like Phil Schlechty's "leader of leaders."

Brandt, Ron. (1988, Nov). Should administrators help empower teachers? *Educational Leadership*, 46 (3), 2.

ERIC Abstract: We are now accumulating the knowledge base necessary for teaching to become a true profession, and we have the possibility within reach to work together to attain that stature. This editorial essay previews the articles that focus on this theme in this issue of *Educational Leadership*. (TE)

Additional Notes: Career incentives and differentiated staffing were advocated by the Holmes Group and the Carnegie Task Force, and supported by both major teacher unions. Gene Geisert of St. John's University says we may be giving in too quickly to power grabs by the unions but most writers in this issue of *Educational Leadership* disagree. Linda Darling-Hammond describes two views of teaching—teachers need not be experts because they follow prescribed rules and teachers must be knowledgeable because students are not standardized and teaching is not routine; the latter will lead to greater professionalism. Brandt agrees with Geisert that

professional prerogatives should go to those who deserve them but thinks restructuring school efforts are consistent with that. Administrators do not have full control but do not have to wait on external agencies, can demonstrate their convictions by the way they act with their teachers.

Bredeson, Paul V. (1989, October). *Empowered teachers-Empowered principals: Principals' perceptions of leadership in schools.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the University Council for Educational Administration, Scottsdale.

ERIC Abstract: As teachers assume a variety of leadership functions traditionally held by the principal and as they become much more of a self-managing professional work group, it is important to examine the implications of these changes for the leadership behavior of professionals credentialed as building principals. This paper presents data from indepth structured interviews with 10 principals (5 elementary and 5 secondary) from two school districts (Centremont and Hillview, Pennsylvania). The school principals' leadership roles in teacher-empowered schools are identified and described. Findings define empowerment, address changes in the traditional role of the building principal, and discuss principal leadership behaviors that support empowered teachers. The experiences with teacher empowerment in these two districts suggest that a clear definition of empowerment is less important than is a commitment to systematically engage teachers in decisions that affect their professional work lives in schools. (7 references) (SI)

Additional Notes: With changes in the role of the classroom teacher will come changes in the principal's role. This paper presents data from interviews with 10 principals from two districts who are involved in rethinking the professional worklife in their schools.

A systematic process by which teachers assume greater responsibility for their worklife is rooted in large body of research and informed opinion. Readjustments in teacher empowerment include changes in position power (formal positional authority), personal power (individual expertise), and political power (control over decision processes). Research in group process also frame this investigation: traditional leaders have initiative and control but group-centered leaders are sensitive to group maintenance and to feelings of individuals while responsibility for effectiveness rests

with the group. Manz and Sims describe the leader as an external colleague, a legitimate role with responsibilities different from both traditional and participative leaders. External leaders nurture and facilitate a work team's own self-management through self-observation (monitoring group performance), self-evaluation (of group performance) and self -reinforcement (of high performance). Three additional behaviors are self-criticism (critical of low performance), self-goal setting (setting performance goals) and rehearsal (thinking through action before taking it). Hackman adds that leaders of self-managing work teams have two responsibilities, monitoring and taking action to facilitate favorable performance conditions for the group. Using these understandings, the author interviewed principals to identify how they define empowerment, the distinctions they make in contrasting their leadership with that of more traditionally organized schools, and the degree to which the sources of power in their schools are reallocated.

These principals described empowerment in their buildings with these aspects: teachers being invited to participate in the way the school is managed, in a systematic way, dealing with daily worklife, and solving real and meaningful problems that are job and instruction related, to make them feel professional. The two school districts had different strategies: in one, the district adopted a highly structured model for team problem-solving but rejected the words empowerment and shared governance, saying that teams were to deal with technical problems that needed resolution, not policies. In the other, there was no formal model;teachers were first released to think about curriculum and over five years the district has tapped them to deal with building problems, professional development programs, and renovation and building decisions. Neither district imposed empowerment from the top down but let empowerment evolve slowly with participation depending on teacher readiness and voluntarism to give legitimacy and ownership. When they discussed possibilities for greater empowerment in the future, these principals repeatedly raised issues of money and time which constrain present efforts.

There were no radical changes in position power but there was some shifting of the principal's power to teachers in functions like scheduling and renovation. These principals said teachers were "in transition" regarding gaining control over resources and rewards, still seeking administrator approval but beginning to rely more on themselves; principals try to aid them with supportive climate and

access to information, though it is sometimes difficult to explain to people outside the school that the principal is not all powerful any more. There was some evidence of adjustments in personal power in these principals' schools; principals reported their teachers were empowering themselves, were motivated and supportive. One principal noted her teachers were more able to make curriculum decisions regarding what is good for students rather than relying on the curriculum guide. In political power, teachers and principals had influence over building-level decisions.

The principals' responses indicated that their leadership behavior fit closely descriptions of group-centered leadership, especially listening and attending . In addition, principals noted teachers need to be ready for leadership, that relinquishing control is not risk free or easy, that their role is now more accurately described as facilitator, that the climate needs to nurture diverse ideas and feelings, that they need to model behaviors, and help groups process problems.

Conclusions: a clear definition of empowerment is less important than a systemic way to engage teachers in decisions that affect their worklives. Empowerment is an ongoing process, with development characterized by readiness, legitimacy, ownership, and incrementalism; two key resources are time and money. Power relationships have changed, are not described in win-lose terms but are redefining principal behavior, taking positive steps along the road to teacher-principal empowerment.

Broyles, India L. (1991, April). *Transforming Teacher Leadership through Action Research.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the New England Educational Research Association, Portsmouth.

ERIC Abstract: The University of Southern Maine offers a Master's degree in Instructional Leadership designed to prepare educators for the demands of working with others to promote educational excellence. Two themes of the program focus on problem finding—the disposition to scrutinize aims as well as means; and a valuing of and practical experience with action research. During the program, the teacher leader identifies a problem pertaining to educational leadership and formulates a leadership strategy related to a solution. This study looks at the growth of leadership in the context of this action research project; specifically, the strategies that teacher leaders select in such a research project and how

teacher leaders view their success as leaders. Data were derived through: (1) an analysis of practicum reports wherein the leader identifies a problem pertaining to educational leadership and formulates a leadership strategy related to a problem solution; (2) a review of pertinent literature; (3) examination of site-specific factors that influence the problem or its resolution; (4) the formulation and implementation of a leadership strategy;and (5) the documentation and critical assessment of the applied leadership steps. The leadership strategies within the action research projects can be seen as relationships in the following categories: school/district administration; teachers; students; curriculum; parents; and other resources. (LL)

Additional Notes: In the master's program at the University of Southern Maine, teacher leaders' growth as inquiring professionals is deliberately nurtured through action research. This study reviewed 17 projects to look at leadership growth in the context of an action research project, specifically what strategies students select and how they view their success.

Students, who did not hold formal leadership positions, came mostly from rural areas, worked in settings ranging from classroom to district, and studied the setting before beginning their projects.

Problems chosen included curriculum (math, science, art, computer, interdisciplinary) and instruction (cooperative learning, learning to learn, learning styles), transition to middle school, co-curriculum activities such as intramural sports and science fairs, student emotional needs, and implementation of staff development peer coaching.

Relationships with administration were important for permission and for support, especially when there were problems Teacher researchers also saw students, teachers, parents as resources The author proposes these research activities as training for future teacher leaders, who have been guided through a process of deliberation, experimentation, and reflection

Buchanan, J., Edelsky, C., Kanevsky, R., Klausner, E., Lieberman, G , Mintier, J., Mantoya, B:, Morris, E., Strieb, L., & Wice, B. (1984) On becoming teacher experts: buying time, *Language Arts* , 61, (7), 731-36

ERIC Abstract: Describes the regular and voluntary meetings of a group of teachers. Touches on the meeting format, the support function of the group, and the kinds of issues discussed in the meetings.

Additional Notes: The opening line of the article is "Teachers don't have enough time." The article is written by a group of teachers from the Philadelphia Teachers Learning Cooperative who say they have found a way to meet and empower themselves. They meet every Thursday afternoon from 4:15 to 6:30 voluntarily to talk about what concerns them because they are responsible for their own professional growth and they get support from the group. When the article was written there were about 30 of them; 15 to 20 come each week; new people are welcome. They began in the early seventies meeting in Teacher Centers but when the city system withdrew funding, they kept on meeting.

They use formal discussion processes, including staff review of a child, reflection on a single chosen word, and end with summaries and specific recommendations. The article includes an appendix list of meeting schedules and topics.

"Sometimes we feel like lone voices crying out for the necessary time to look at children." (734) They hope this article inspires others to buy themselves time for themselves and their children.

California Commission on the Teaching Profession. (1985). *Who will teach our children?* Sacramento: The Commission.

ERIC Abstract: This report sets forth 27 recommendations by the California Commission on the Teaching Profession for improving California schools. After an outline summary of the recommendations and an introductory discussion of education as California's "growth industry," the recommendations are presented according to three general topic areas. The first ten recommendations pertain to restructuring the teaching career and establishing rigorous professional standards. These include deregulation of teacher education, residency requirements for credentials, a redesigned tenure process, competitive grants for advanced career options, salary credit for total years of experience teaching, and sabbaticals. The second set of 10 recommendations pertain to redesigning the school as a more productive workplace for teachers and students. These include proposals for class size

reduction, professional development, and restructuring the management of schools to involve teachers in decision-making. The third set of recommendations--pertaining to teacher recruitment--include upgrading of salaries, recruiting teachers statewide, and offering career incentives such as work-study programs and additional service-payback fellowships to college students. Appended to these recommendations are (1) a look at the price tag; (2) a table indicating agencies responsible for implementing each recommendation; (3) a fictional scenario illustrating the benefits of these reforms for a teacher's career; (4) documentation of the process of developing the recommendations; (5) a list of commissioned research papers; and (6) a list of commission members. (TE)

California Commission on Teacher Credentialing. (1991). *Leadership, responsibility, and innovation in the education decade: seventeenth report of the Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 1989-1991.* Sacramento: The Commission.

Notes: The report contains information about the Commission (organizational chart, membership, committees, mission, legislative and reform initiatives) and its areas of responsibility, including the California new teacher project, elementary subject matter standards, middle grades credentialing program, professional growth requirements, data on teacher preparation programs, alternative routes to certification, advisory panels, reviews of professional preparation programs, certification for administrators, efforts to streamline the credentialing procedure, a special education study, new standards to address the changing demographics of the student population, monitoring of teacher assignments, studies of the uses of credentialing examinations (CBEST, NTE), maintaining standards of professional conduct, automation changes in Credentialing services, and a report of revenues and expenditures.

The area of the report relevant to issues of teacher leadership is the description of the California New Teacher Project. SWRL's preliminary findings indicate that support for new teachers contributes to teacher retention, instructional practice, student engagement rates, and feelings of success; both new teachers and their supporters grow; the most cost-effective approach is structured set-aside time. Types of support were varied and included use of mentors, coaches, buddies, district staff, outside consultants, professors, and technology.

Clift, Renee *et al.* (1992, Win). Developing the potential for collaborative school leadership. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29, (4), 877-908.

ERIC Abstract: Role relationships among teachers, administrators, and university educators from five schools and one university in a three-year collaborative project were studied. A general progression from initial ambiguity regarding role definitions for all participants to a tentative consensus on the value of the importance of teacher leadership is noted. (SLD)

Additional Notes: The article reports on a three year study to look at role relationships among teachers, administrators and university-based educators at five schools becoming more involved in schoolwide leadership.

Schools developed action plans with the university team, building on relationships among individual faculty and university people who had worked together on earlier projects after some faculty requested additional opportunity for professional development. After initial discussion, five schools designed their own projects.

Data from interviews and observations were coded into five categories: role ambiguity, negotiation, conflict, overload, and consensus. The article includes brief reports of the projects and changes in role relationships at each school. Looking at all schools, analysis indicated that the five dynamics "show a general progression moving from initial ambiguity regarding role definitions for all participants, through periods of overload and conflict, toward a tentative but shared consensus on the value and importance of teacher leadership for school-wide initiatives." (904) The rapidity and kinds of changes were influenced by the district, each school's administration, and negotiations with the university team.

Their summary observations:
1) shared leadership for school-wide initiatives is not a naturally occurring phenomenon, nor is it created simply by formation a leadership team
2) the importance of school and district context can't be ignored
3) progress is more likely if everyone can tolerate ambiguity and communicate that tolerance in actions as well as words
4) fundamental changes are fragile, easily destroyed

5) their research design had limitations, problems especially with sharing negative information between school and university

Restructured schools and shared leadership are new ideas not strongly in place, and need "policy to support practice;" actions which support teacher risktaking, which means focusing on the school system not just building or classroom; and encouraging studies even if they fail.

Clift, Renee T. (1991, Summer). *Teacher Education and Teaching Empowerment for Whom? When?* Teacher Educator, 27, (1), 14-23.

ERIC Abstract: Teacher empowerment should begin by preparing teachers to make wise decisions about educational experiences and control decision s about educational quality. If teacher educators feel their efforts are shaped by elements beyond their control in situations prizing faculty governance and autonomy, a compliance-oriented socialization process begins and is amplified in school. (SM)

Additional Notes: The author feels that teacher empowerment should begin with the preparation of teachers who are able to make decisions about educational practices. Teacher educators need to feel empowered as well as teachers in public and private schools. There are constraints on the work of teacher eduators. Teacher educators are not involved in the political aspect of their profession.

There are messages sent out to prospective teachers of how much power teachers have through the treatment that they receive. Teacher educators do not have power in curriculum decisions. Teacher education program revision must pass through many departments before a change can occur. Teachers do not have the power or knowledge to make changes quickly. Prospective teachers feel that empowerment for them is learning how to have control over their classrooms. Most students are told to learn theory and from the theory they will be able to put the ideas into practice.

Proposals for teacher education reform can help empower teachers. The proposals are university-wide responsibility for teacher education and increased work with schools for professional development sites. In order to create schools which encourage career development for teachers the messages which are sent out

about the profession of teaching must be changed. Administration at universities must emphasize that work related to teacher education is important. There should be a balance between the practice of teaching and the study of practice. There should be training in the universities for administrators which promotes teacher involvement in decision making. Teacher educators must also take responsibility for the people who they are turning out into the profession of teaching. Teacher educators should also demand resources which enable them to offer assitance to new teachers. Teacher empowerment consists of always trying to improve their profession, and taking responsibility for these changes.

Conley, S. (1991). Review of research on teacher participation in school decision making. In Gerald Grant, (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education*. Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

Notes: This review of research examines teachers's expectations for participation in decision making, the forms that participation is taking, and power in decision making. There are different models which schools can adopt for teacher participation-bureaucratic, and professional. In the bureaucratic model, administrators use their authority to get teachers to comply with their decisions The professional model recognizes the expertise of teachers when decisions are made about the needs of students Researchers who follow the bureacratic model emphasize the importance of supervision of teacher participation. Other studies which follow the professional model emphasize the importance of teachers roles as professional decision makers. Bacharach et al hypothesized that teachers who were denied participation would feel powerless because of their expectations for discretion and involvement. Researchers who follow the administrative think that loyalty to administrators and compliance with administrative decisions are teacher participation. Researchers who follow the professional model feel that teacher participation is effective when teachers feel they are making decisions based on their own knowledge

Decision participation can be assessed in relative or absolute terms. Relative participation is when teachers measure their need for participation on how much influence they already against how much they want. Absolute participation only considers how much participation they already have. Studies confirm that when actual decision participation of teachers does not meet with their

expectations, teachers report more stress and less loyalty to principals. Teachers seem to feel more deprived in decision-making involving the school as an organization such as student rights, than in classroom decisions such as what books should be used.

Traditional forms of participation tend to be advisory. Research is examining if new forms of participation increase teacher involvement. New forms of participation extend decision making of teachers. Career ladders,mentor teachers,peer assistance and school governance are all new forms of participation for teachers in decision making. Teachers may gain participation by having an influence on decisions and have administrators retain their authority for final decisions. One study suggests that teachers may not to expect to make final decisions. Research shows that teachers are making decisions isolated from fellow teachers and supervisors. Teachers feel most deprived in management decisions, but want to be involved mostly in decisions in the classroom. Increased teacher participation in school decisions have begun to improve schools.

Cooper, Myrna. (1988). Whose culture is it, anyway? In A. Lieberman (Ed.), *Building a Professional Culture in Schools.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Notes: Discussions of professional culture commonly focus on authority and decisionmaking, control of access, models of professionalism and collegiality, and quality issues; they are initiated outside of schools and away from teachers. We need more openness to how things really happen in schools, that "outside-looking-in is different from inside-looking-around." (45) Those who are close to the field of inquiry can offer divergences to the dialogue of school reform. The author offers 17 divergences to stimulate further discussion.
Divergence #1: A professional culture grows, has history, from what is already in the school, is not overlaid on cleared ground.
Divergence #2: A professional culture has a belief system but no talk about this in school reform means there may be no change in the convictions of the system.
Divergence #3: Most current reforms aim at eliminating differences but a professional culture respects diversity and creativity.
Divergence #4: Whose culture is it, anyway? If teachers are told what to do, they will have again received a culture.

Divergence #6: Professional cultures in schools are being viewed monolithically, when we need to respect individuality in schools as in children.
Divergence #5: Status and control are byproducts of professionalism; we should not focus teachers on the trappings without the substance.
Divergence #7: Higher education is not a model for collegiality in schools; their collegiality is a different kind of institutional protocol.
Divergence #8: Higher education "missionaries" do not remain involved with lower schools beyond limited funding missions.
Divergence #9: Differences in schools create distinctive cultures.
Divergence #10: The lore on professional cultures ignores the client, children.
Divergence #11: By imitating other professions (in status, independence, rewards, and power) we wrongly conclude these are the criteria for a profession.
Divergence #12: The medical model can offer quality and depth of practice and the values of a professional.
Divergence #13: Empowerment is less than power, is received power; delegated authority and helping roles are egalitarian, not leadership.
Divergence #14: The key relationship, child and teacher, is like family; the culture of professionalism may overshadow the real nature of schools; teachers are motivated by what is good for children, not the usual norms of professionalism.
Divergence #15: Other professions are distinctive through sound practice and teachers need control of the content and practice of teaching; teaching will be a profession when a malpractice suit is plausible.
Divergence #16: Ancillary activities, if they are right roles, are often treated as additions to regular teaching, so teachers get the worst of both worlds, distracted from teaching and not adequately assimilated into leadership activities as modeled in higher education.
Divergence #17: A professional culture draws from the common background of people, creating membership through assimilation.
"Neither changed roles for teachers nor (superficially) changed structures in schools can of themselves change anything *that matters*." "...there is no professional culture for teachers save what is conferred through their students." (54)

Cross, Christopher T. (1991). *Education research and development for teacher learning: leadership roles.* Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Educational Resources Information Center.

ERIC Abstract: For student learning to improve, teacher learning must also improve. Currently, teachers are not being prepared to foster student learning in reasoning, problem solving, or explaining. These are skills required by the national goals. Considerable research has been done on the learning needs of teachers; however, this research is not reaching practicing or prospective teachers. Teacher education institutions and the research community share responsibility for failing to transmit research findings to teachers and train them to use the findings. Several Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) research centers have conducted studies which relate to teacher learning needs. A major OERI priority is dissemination of research. Other OERI activities which relate to improving teacher education include: "The Campaign to Support America's Teachers," a 3-year program to provide teachers with relevant and timely research-based information; "Partnerships for Innovative Teacher Education," which provides grants for partnerships between in institutions of higher learning and local school districts to establish school-based professional development for prospective and practicing teachers; and the Federal Coordinating Council for Science, Engineering and Technology (FIX-IT), a federal interagency group which focuses on the enhancement and preparation of mathematics and science teachers.

Additional Notes: In a speech to the AACTE, Cross begins by saying these are exciting times in education. He cites the new education secretary, Lamar Alexander, and the education summit in Virginia, and focuses attention on the national education goals, which he says were easier to negotiate than to reach, noting that we should be optimistic but emphasizing we are after results. The goals are designed to create "a new educational order that is based on performance." (4) All people must be able to think. We must make education central to our national agenda. For student learning to improve, teacher learning must improve. OERI is active in improving teacher learning in several ways. Cross notes the 25 national research centers (mentioning as examples the LRDC at the University of Pittsburgh's work in math learning and the constructivist process as well as their textbook analysis, Michigan State's work on problems of teacher learning, and the new Center at Kalamazoo on

teacher evaluation.) Cross is critical of teacher education schools for failing to make future teachers aware of the latest research and for not training them to use it. Dissemination is one of his priorities, so OERI will fund a new center for that purpose and include dissemination in the mission of centers and labs. Much lab money over the next several years will go to efforts to educate teachers. Three other OERI activities are "The Campaign to Support America's Teachers," seed grant money for "Partnerships for Innovative Teacher Education, " and a federal interagency budget for teacher preparation in math and science education called FIX-IT. Cross reiterates that simple answers and quick fixes will not support the kind of student learning demanded by the national goals. The AACTE has taken steps forward with their publication on the knowledge base for beginning teachers and with the new NCATE standard but teacher candidates need to "learn how to learn to teach"(16). He asks if prospective teachers know how to use ERIC, the centers and labs, and research, then offers evidence that some do not. The teaching profession should have expectations for its members similar to that of the medical profession. The challenge for OERI is to make sure the education research base develops new tools for teachers and the challenge for teacher education is to get the tools to teachers and to teach them how to use them.

Dana, Nancy Fichtman. (1992, October). *Teacher leadership through collaborative action research: Implications for teachers, principals, and university researchers/teacher educators.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Teacher Educators, Grantsville.

ERIC Abstract: This study was conducted to explore the process of teacher and principal change initiated by elementary school teachers who wished to replace the school's culture of isolation and seclusion with a culture of collegiality and caring. Their vision of change and the change process itself was intertwined with the development of a sense of teacher leadership and teacher voice. The teachers, the principal, and a university researcher engaged in an action research project to explore, initiate, implement, and document change at the school. Data were gathered utilizing participant observation, ethnographic interviewing, document analysis, and dialogue journals. Results suggest that voice and reflection are the common threads that weave cultural change, and that teacher, principal, and researcher narratives change into one collective narrative. A subsection of the paper examines the assertion that the nature of

one's own voice, critical reflection, and change are intimately linked. The finding and silencing of voice, critical reflection, and change are reciprocal, interactive, and dynamic processes. (Contains 20 references.) (LL)

Additional Notes: Over the year, changes were observed in the teachers, in the principal, and in the university researcher. As a result of their year's work the group presented a grounded assertion, that "the examination of the nature of one's own voice, critical reflection, and change are intimately linked. The finding and silencing of voice, critical reflection, and change are reciprocal, interactive, and dynamic processes." (7). For teachers, change meant finding and using voices and creating structures at the school which enabled their voices to be heard; although some peers tried to silence them, they reflected and overcame silencing attempts. For the principal, change meant re conceptualizing his role through metaphors that enabled a collegial voice to replace his directive one. For the researcher, change meant silencing the researcher authoritative voice and find a collegial voice through critical reflection. "School reform and restructuring may begin by entering into the endless circles within circles of voice, reflection, and change...." (8)

Devaney, Kathleen. (1987, Jan). *The lead teacher: Ways to begin.* Paper prepared for the Task Force on Teaching as a Profession. New York: Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy.

Notes: This paper begins with a picture of how a lead teacher position might be designed and started, then looks at recent research on what is needed to improve teaching. These needs lead to principles that should guide the design of lead teacher positions. Lead teacher positions are not to create elite teachers but to contribute to a collegial, self-improving work culture which fosters professionalism for all teachers.

The imaginary scenario includes the Carnegie Task Force report description of possibilities for lead teachers, including the following: schools will design the responsibilities in different ways, they will not be assistant principals, they will "derive their authority primarily from the respect of their professional colleagues." The principle which underlies the position is that "teaching will be professionalized by increasing the competence, collegiality, and responsibility of all teachers in the school"

(3), the person should deal with the toughest problems and be seen as a challenge, not a reward for past performance. The process of support begins with discussions and design suggested by interested people at the school, then the central office must bring the position to the bargaining table and protect the flexibility of the position at the school site. Givens include attracting teachers who are good at helping other teachers, selecting them by a process in which teachers are the majority, maybe reducing the central office staff, maybe structuring school to give all teaches more outofclass time, giving them summer training, and keeping teacher identity in bargaining. Design principles include that the lead teacher must continue to teach children, should not have mostly administrative or bureaucratic duties; should also not just do mentoring and coaching but should also include feedback, counseling, and demonstration, with the core task being to bring all teachers into collaboration.

The review of research section looks at three kinds of studies—those interviewing representative teachers, those looking at schools as organizations, those that are early results of state programs.

Teachers do not ask for (and may oppose) merit pay in disguise; they want fair pay for all, not high pay for an elite, salary is not teachers' chief motivator or reward, and there is pressure against making some teachers more equal than others. American teachers resist the idea that "a proletariat of teachers will need to be closely supervised by an executive teacher intelligentsia." She cites examples from state programs in which teachers resist job differentiation. But all teachers know that some do better work than others. The myth of equality can be dropped in a working ambiance that shares expertise. Teachers see isolation as autonomy sometimes but issues important to good teaching are outside their control. Teachers turn to each other for solace not professional interaction; promoted teachers inspire envy.

McLaughlin says what teachers want is professional development. Stanford researchers say teachers locate their effectiveness in what they know about subject matter and about students and merging the two. Sources of help are in the climate of the school and faculty. Their payoffs come from students. Rosenholtz says three factors keep them in teaching—task autonomy, certainty about abilities to help students, and learning opportunities for themselves. Schools that helped them learn included collaboration, feedback, teacher agreement about what is important in teaching. Stanford

researchers said the exchange between teacher and student is central but ambiguous; they wanted management to do two things: minimize the uncertainty that surrounds teacher-student work (like restraining interruptions to class, insuring availability of materials) and maintain a positive atmosphere (some autonomy to experiment, no gamesplaying, feedback on instruction, upholding of standards, and clearing of roadblocks that inhibit new programs). Webb maintains teachers' isolation and competition are a cause school problems, management problems and Rosenholtz says in learning-impoverished schools, teachers described teaching as routine.

What people other than teachers say teachers need: Bird and Little say excellent schools have collegiality and experimentation in combination. Darling-Hammond says there is management to get rid of incompetence and management to promote professionalism; teachers should join in professional tasks with management, such as selection of new teachers, assistance to new teachers, performance evaluations tied to professional improvement, ongoing reviews of the schools teaching programs and school site decisions especially those related to instruction.

The lead teacher concept is part of organizational and workplace reform, not just career ladder. Lead teachers could help teachers get what they say they want, things like more time to attend to individual student needs, feedback, immediate help for teaching problems, opportunities for professional development, informal exchanges with others, a voice in school organization

Design specifications for lead teachers: existing positions are precursors but not prototypes. The new purpose needs to be to transform teaching into a communal endeavor, a long-term processes. Generic job descriptions follow the principles outlined above. Possible tasks should be tailored by the school but may include classroom teaching, mentoring, coaching, appraisal and feedback, inservice education, peer reviews, participation in decisionmaking.

Gaining authority for the position: able teachers should be part of the design and selection, lead teachers must "flesh out" their jobs as they work, administrators have to give the role authority Person will need an interactive style.

Other things necessary are maintain the place of the principal as the person who says the buck stops here, revise district personnel structures, forge new agreements with management and unions, provide a resource and support agency for lead teachers (teacher centers); fund additional time.

Obstacles to lead teachers and these kinds of school changes are strong if teaching is not seen as professional work.

Donaldson, Gordon A., Jr. (1993, October). Working smarter together. *Educational Leadership,* 51, (2), 12-16.

Notes: Fullan and Hargreaves note that working collectively is the best way to improve schools but it is difficult. School people have worked long and hard but may not be changing what teachers do daily and therefore what students learn. Longer and harder will not change performance; we must work smarter.

Working smarter is not more meetings identifying problems without resolving them or adding to teachers' workload or asking them to do group work without giving them the skills to do so. It means monitoring the efficiency of faculty work according to how productive it was in reaching desired student outcomes and how much it depleted resources, including human ones.

The author describes a five stage model of the cycle of progress, each with possibility and danger. Stage 1: Criticism--external or internal dissatisfaction brings the possibility for improvement and the danger of defensiveness. Stage 2: Self-examination--staff can examine student outcomes and practices but may have discord. Stage 3: Goal Setting--collective goal setting can occur if they avoid defeatism. Stage 4: New Efforts--staff can plan and implement new efforts if the collective effort does not disintegrate. Stage 5: Consolidations--Adjustments to planning and implementing can consolidate new practice if they avoid disenchantment. Faculty can use the cycles to see where they are now and what dangers to avoid.

Principals and teacher leaders have roles in helping faculty work smarter, but not the role of the strong leader in control from the effective schools era who deplete their own resources and maybe the faculty's. Redefinition as a community requires new working relationships among players. Three operating principles form the foundation for a new compact: responsibility and authority go hand

in hand, children and adults learn best in a trusting community where both are learner and resource; all adult members care for the institution as a whole. Leaders must assess each person's commitment to the principles.

Leaders must face whether or not they can change attitudes and actions. To work smarter, a leader faces criticism, welcomes self-examination, sets achievable goals, nurtures new efforts, monitors, and celebrates. Leaders in both administrative and teacher ranks must redefine their purposes and relationships to build on staff capacity for reflection and action.

Draina, Lois King. (1990, Nov). The teacher as leader. *Momentum* , 21, 57.

Notes: The author questions whether teachers are being prepared for significant leadership roles in preservice and inservice programs. She asks whether or not teachers are at ease in both instruction and decisionmaking and says they need to be able to do both. The author agrees with Barth, who says bringing out the best in teachers brings out the best in students. Young teachers enrolled in a graduate program at Marywood College agreed but thought they needed training in collaborative planning and decisionmaking. The author visited a school cited as exemplary for teacher leadership, The School of St. Mary in Lake Forest, Illinois, which has a School Communication Improvement Team which coordinates activities and makes decisions about school operation.

Ellis, Nancy E. (1993, Spring). Collegiality from the teacher's perspective: social contexts for professional development. *Action in Teacher Education,* 15, (1), 42-47.

Notes: Isolation is common in the teacher's workplace and collegiality can provide some of the necessary conditions for educational improvement. This study looks at retrospective accounts of 15 elementary teachers who changed approaches in reading and writing instruction through collegiality. Although all teachers attempted to work with the same model, they all defined the reading and writing process in different ways. Those who had strong theoretical bases for understanding were more consistent in classroom practice. All named one or more colleagues who helped them learn and develop the process approach. The more demanding the innovation, the more teachers needed official sanctions to

participate. Learning was a gradual process. Collegiality was an important component in change.

Erlandson, D. A., and S. L. Bifano. (1987). Teacher empowerment: What research says to the principal. *NASSP Bulletin,* 71, (503), 31-36.

ERIC Abstract: Examines research supporting the term "teacher empowerment" and some of the implications that this term has for principals. Includes 23 references. (Author/MD)

Additional Notes: Greater responsibility for teachers can extend the principal's power by bringing expanded resources to the planning, implementation, and monitoring of the instructional program. The authors first briefly review the literature describing teacher dissatisfaction with lack of control and advancement in their work, then do an extended summary of work on professionalism.

In a discussion of professionalism, they cite Darling-Hammond that key characteristics are autonomy and appropriate practice rather than conformity and standardized practice; Wise and Darling-Hammond's position that empowerment improves teaching; Imber on teachers who enter the profession expecting to be able to make decisions but who find they cannot; McLaughlin et al. that school environments prevent teachers from doing what attracted them to teaching in the first place; Chapman and Hutcheson that some teachers found other careers used their talents better than teaching; Rosenholtz and Smylie that lack of professionalism failed to attract good students to the field; Nybert and Farber that the press for professionalism leads to confrontation about school governance; Lortie that teachers have little choice over their professional environment.

Research on shared decision-making supports a more autonomous role for teachers impacting school effectiveness. The authors cite Aluto and Belasco that increasing participation increases probability that change will occur with ownership, shared decisionmaking enhances administrative control by extending influence and leads to greater job satisfaction but should be in areas of teachers' expertise. Bridges says decisionmaking should be in teachers' areas of expertise, areas of a technical or educational nature; Johnston and Germinario, that teachers are interested in participating if they are capable of contributing and find the participation personally relevant, that not all teachers want

participation, that increased centralization of the organization deprives teachers of decisionmaking. "The research clearly demonstrates that the empowerment of teachers has a positive impact on their professional image, on their commitment to the mission of the school, and on their decision to remain in teaching." (34-35)

Implications for the principal are two: structure school to diminish hierarchical differences and give teachers autonomy and collegial involvement in decisions but proceed with caution since not all teachers are prepared.

The most effective principals have involved teachers but teachers can become saturated with decisionmaking, not all decisions are appropriate for them, and not all want to participate.

Fay, Carolyn. (1990, April). *Teaching and leading: In the teacher's voice.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston.

ERIC Abstract: Interviews were conducted with teachers who chaired the steering committees for 3 of the 25 National Education Association Mastery in Learning (MIL) Project schools with the purpose of eliciting their viewpoints on teacher empowerment and leadership. The schools (Orchards Elementary School in Lewiston, Idaho; Willow Creek Junior High in Rochester, Minnesota; and Maryvale High School in Phoenix, Arizona) were chosen as a representative cross-section offering three different levels of schooling, three different settings (urban, suburban, rural), and faculties of differing sizes. Of particular interest were the teacher's views on how they combined their teaching role with the leadership role, how one affected the other, and how their expanded roles were viewed by their colleagues. Four common themes emerged from interviews and observations: (1) time and teacher leadership; (2) effects of teaching mission and leadership upon one another; (3) teacher leadership and collegial relationships; and (4) differences between teacher leadership and administration. Different views held by the MIL teacher leaders on these themes are reported. It is recommended that study of teacher leadership should be increased and directly involve teacher leaders themselves. It is also recommended that professional development programs be designed for practicing and aspiring teacher leaders. (JD)

Additional Notes: Second-order school reform efforts which focus on new goals, structures and roles need teacher empowerment. Genuine teacher empowerment may depend on practitioners determining the conditions that foster their own empowerment, by developing new beliefs about their abilities to lead colleagues in school change, assuring appropriateness and ownership and actualizing their beliefs in concrete ways (such as sharing their expertise, developing new skills with colleagues, designing roles which promote new functions yet keep teaching as central). Teacher empowerment is not rising in the ranks through a hierarchy into administration; teacher authority must be differentiated from organizational or managerial authority, to transform relationships with administrators and create a community of leaders. The only appropriate source for information about teachers' perceptions of empowerment is teachers themselves.

The author describes three teacher leaders' experiences at three Mastery in Learning sites. Although there were different projects, settings, people, and different positions on empowerment and leadership among the settings, there were some common threads: the need for time, the effect of teaching mission, collegial relationships, and differences from administrative roles

Fay makes two recommendations: the study of teacher leadership should include teachers and have common themes tested with other school leaders; there should be formal efforts to design professional development programs for practicing and aspiring teacher leaders (one of which is beginning in Indiana).

Fay, Carolyn. (1992, April). *The case for teacher leadership Towards definition and development.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: The first part of this paper presents the findings of a study of the leadership needs of five practicing teacher leaders. Findings identified an expressed need for specific teacher development and training, which led to the creation of a Leadership Institute for the Future of Teaching(LIFT). The second part of the paper describes the LIFT program, a 2-week graduate summer seminar and fall course that was offered at Indiana University in 1991. Participants continue to meet weekly and publish a newsletter. A university seminar program for teacher leadership certification is under consideration. Goals of LIFT are dedicated to the study and development of teacher leadership, research

dissemination, and the creation of restructured, teacher-designed schools. Three figures are included. Appendices include sample pages of the program newsletter, LIFT planning panel participants, a summary of panel issues, and an editorial letter to the local newspaper. (27 references) (LMI)

Additional Notes: A study was conducted of five teacher leaders at three schools where the staff was working on restructuring the organization of the school. The goal of the study was to find out the concerns the teacher leaders had as they performed their leadership roles. Interviews were conducted with each of the five teachers and from these intereviews common concerns of the teacher leadership roles were found. The concerns are distinctions between teacher leadership and administration, the importance of positive collegial relationships, effects of teaching and leadership roles on one another, the need for specialized training/professional development, and fundamental changes in school/day use of teacher time. These five concerns enabled the teachers to give their own definition of teacher leadership:

> "A teacher leader is a practicing teacher, chosen by fellow faculty members to lead them in ways determined by the context of individual school needs, who has formal preparation and scheduled time for a leadership role which, to preserve the teacher mission, calls for neither managerial nor supervisory duties." (8)

Teachers wanted to keep teaching as a central focus in their leadership roles. Teacher leaders also felt that proper leadership training and development is essential for carrying out these new roles. Teacher leadership creates a new model for schools. The new model reforms itself through empowering all members of schools' organization. Teacher leaders are becoming a bigger part in school management.

A concern which emerged from the study of teacher leaders was leadership development and training. An institute was formed called the Leadership Institute for the Future of Teaching (LIFT) for this sole purpose. The LIFT program was formed from information which was gathered by three expert panels which consisted of teacher leadership authorities from across the country. The LIFT program is established from the concerns of practicing teacher leaders and beliefs of the planning panels. The LIFT program conducted a seminar to develop leadership skills,to study school restructuring through

teacher leadership, and to test the effectiveness of the LIFT idea. The LIFT seminar consisted of skills development in areas such as managing conflict, conducting literature searches, writing journals and leading mini-sessions for use in meetings. Becoming familiar with recent research on leadership and change,working together and becoming aware of their own leadership strengths proved to be very powerful learning for the teachers.

Firestone, William A. & Bader, Beth D. (1992). *Redesigning Teaching: Professionalism or Bureaucracy?* Albany:State University of New York Press. 1992.

Notes: The book describes case studies of school districts implementing two kinds of teacher reform--job differentiation (ranks, special positions, merit pay) and job enlargement (participation in internal decision making).

The bureaucratic approach relies on external knowledge, uses external controls and incentives. It can succeed within in its own boundaries. "Mossville" had an efficient and well focused design and implementation of a direct instruction teacher improvement program. Some teacher opposition and declining motivation was acceptable because they also got some compliance with new and better standards for teaching. "Hill City" had some dialogue but did not resolve differences among administrators and teachers; they avoided the demotivation of Mossville but had no noticeable improvement in teaching practice. The "Academy's" professional design emphasized teacher initiative, empowerment in specific areas and the purchase of additional time, resulting in effort that accomplished instructional tasks and provided intrinsic motivation. But teachers helping and teachers and participating in selecting teacher leaders was divisive. The program also did not always offer rewards to recruit the best teachers to leadership positions. Incoherent coordination was balanced by multiple sources of teacher initiative. The professional approach led to comparable teacher learning but also with more curriculum development work and improved teacher motivation. "Essentially, the bureaucratic design buys compliance. Teachers teach the way administrators want them to, but they expend no greater effort. The professional design buys time and effort. That effort can be used to facilitate student learning both directly and indirectly through its effect on teacher motivation." (181)

Firestone, William A. (1993, Mar). Why "professionalizing" teaching is not enough, *Educational Leadership* , 50, (6), 6-11.

ERIC Abstract: Efforts to professionalize teaching may increase teachers' commitment, but reforms may not be entirely successful without attention paid to their pedagogical content knowledge. One hypothetical district adopted a career enhancement plan offering curriculum-specialist and teacher-leader opportunities and encouraged teacher collaboration. The overall program improved incentives for good teachers to remain in the profession and improved morale. (13 references) (MLH)

Notes: Efforts to professionalize change the settings in which teachers work but they may not change how teachers actually teach. His example is the Academy, one of three schools in a study of professionalism and school change.

Efforts at Academy to professionalize teaching included differentiated staffing with curriculum specialists and teacher leaders (who got a stipend and 27 paid days of summer work to mentor beginning teachers, help other teachers, and work on development tasks for school). The program enhanced teacher influence over the curriculum, gave teachers more input into decisions affecting curriculum, budget, personnel, and other out-of-class activities. Teacher collaboration improved but more through the time devoted to exchange rather than the differentiation in ranks. Student achievement improved, though that is hard to tie directly to the professionalism efforts.

Firestone says efforts were a success in their own terms but did not move teachers toward student-centered instruction, except in marginal ways (science Olympics) not in regular classroom practice.

"Big changes in instructional practice did not happen because professional reforms do not address them. Professional reforms make explicit changes in relationships among teachers and between teachers and administrators, but they are neutral about classroom practice." Reformers cannot assume that teachers know how to teach if the constraints are removed. (9)

Going beyond professional reform includes two additional changes: teachers understanding new approaches to teaching (examples: Gheens Academy in Kentucky, Schenley High School in Pittsburg,

teacher networks and changes in student grouping, time for access to subjects and assessment--beyond the idea that classrooms, classes, and bells mean real school.

"...a comprehensive package for reform should include both endeavors to professionalize teaching and the more difficult efforts to improve pedagogy." (11)

Foster, Alice G. (1991, May). When teachers initiate restructuring. *Educational Leadership,* 48, (8), 27-30.

ERIC Abstract: Four years ago, a very small group of teachers at a Stockton, California, high school recognized that the school must make some dramatic changes in curriculum, governance, and educational philosophies. This article shares pitfalls and surprises encountered in teachers' struggle to create a climate for change and implement their new vision. (seven references) (MLH)

Notes: The article describes restructuring conceived and begun by classroom teachers who remain the moving force behind change. A small number of teachers organized a core group (8 teachers and 4 administrators) to meet at a home in the evenings to discuss the literature on restructuring, looking first at roles, the process of change, and difficulties with change. The meetings let them talk about change in the abstract without threatening turf early on and let them develop non-hierarchical social norms for working together. Next they got a grant and developed a model of teacher participation in decisionmaking, then expanded the core group to 25 change agents. The new group, the Instructional Leadership team, met twice monthly, contracted with consultants, joined the ASCD Consortium on Restructuring Schools which was a valuable networking experience. They moved slowly, did not make many changes at first, so when they did the school schedule for the first time it looked a lot like the old one, but they thought they needed time to learn.

Problems included the following: the central office viewed them suspiciously so they withheld information which increased suspicion and caught the principal in the middle; it was hard to change an older faculty; they got short time lines given them by the central office for some tasks; they had a principal reluctant to be held accountable for their risks; they were viewed as elitist by those not on the team.

By the end of year two they were ready to do something, so they brainstormed about school problems and chose self-esteem of students and staff, public relations, school maintenance, and school/business partnerships, not curriculum and instruction where they would be most challenged. Committees made action plans, members began to talk about making changes. The school "had established some new social norms and was creating a climate for change." (28) They didn't start with a vision (might not have seen all the possibilities or a radical vision would have been rejected) but over the summer read Barth and Schlechty, then drafted a vision, involved the student body and community in drafts of the vision then held a three-day conference on implementing the vision.

They may now begin to face resistance as they begin to make larger changes and won't know if they have succeeded for years but plan to continue slowly and relentlessly.

Fraser, Janet M. (1991, Spring). Walking the tightrope of teacher leadership. *Kappa Delta Pi Record* , 80-83.

The author is a volunteer teacher leader in an elementary integrated magnet school. She volunteered to serve as a lead teacher of the school's site-based management cycle, the only teacher on the school's restructuring team. Even though her position as teacher leader was respected by all the administrators and her ideas were well-received, she still felt there was a definite line between the administrators and herself.

The teacher leader position enabled her to have a different perception of the goals that her school needs to reach. Her goal as a teacher leader is to help her fellow teachers come out of isolation. The school started faculty study groups which consisted of teachers sharing information gained from reading the latest research which pertained to the restructuring of their school. The teacher leader was in charge of the study group. The teacher leader was seen as one of the administrators and not one of the teachers. As teachers began to trust the teacher leader the results of the study groups were more positive. Teachers in one study group felt that they were able to express their ideas freely and find out that others shared their feelings. The teacher leader is uncomfortable with the fact that her role is not clearly defined, but she describes it as "organizer, counsellor, molder, facilitator, and contact person." (81) Teachers and the teacher leader are not sure of what power she possesses.

Teachers have been used to others making decisions for so long had difficulty in accepting this responsibility. Teachers have always looked to their principals for decisions. Teachers began to trust the process and feel empowered; they were now saying, "We can make a difference."

Fullan, Michael G. (1992, Feb). Visions that blind. *Educational Leadership*, 49, (5), 19-22.

ERIC Abstract: Overattachment to particular innovations or overreliance on a charismatic leader can restrict consideration of alternatives and produce short-term gains or superficial solutions. To encourage lasting school improvement, principals should build collaborative cultures instead of imposing their own visions or change agendas. A sidebar illustrates a Toronto (Ontario) elementary school's collaborative work culture. (six references) (MLH)

Notes: Vision can blind leaders in several ways. A principal may pursue a vision in such a narrow way that teachers will resist, may get compliance without more basic changes such as considering alternatives, reflecting on practices. A charismatic principal who changes a school has only change depended on personality, which may leave with the leader. These kinds of changes restrict consideration of alternatives and suppress the voices of teachers. The crucial question is "Whose vision is it?"

Principals would do well to develop collaborative cultures. Their visions are not unimportant but they should make vision building a collective exercise. An alternative to the vision-driven change is starting small, gradually expanding, letting the vision develop through collaboration. Fullan's Learning Consortium has 8 principles for principals to work interactively with teachers and community

1. understand the school culture before trying to change it
2. value your teachers; promote their professional growth
3. extend what you value
4. express what you value
5. promote collaboration, not cooptation
6. make menus not mandates
7. use bureaucratic means to facilitate not constrain
8. connect with the wider environment

Fullan quotes Schein, "The only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture" (20) which for schools is a subtle business.

Fullan, Michael G. (1993, Mar). Why teachers must become change agents. *Educational Leadership* , 50, (6), 12-17.

ERIC Abstract: Moral purpose keeps teachers close to children's needs; change agentry causes them to develop better strategies for accomplishing their moral goals. Core capacities for building greater change capacity are personal vision-building, inquiry, mastery, and collaboration. Education faculties must redesign their programs to focus directly on developing beginner's knowledge base for effective teaching and for changing the conditions affecting teaching. (MLH)

Notes: "Teaching is at its core a moral profession." (12) But teachers become disillusioned. Moral purpose and change agentry are allied; teachers need both to make teaching a noble profession.

Fullan sees four core capacities for building change capacity--personal vision-building (examining and re-examining why we became teachers), inquiry (lifelong learning which feeds vision building), mastery (effective new behaviors and deeper understanding), and collaboration .

These have profound implications for teacher education and redesigning schools. Teacher education is not geared to create lifelong learners these four things. Teachers educators must take some initiative themselves, should not advocate for things they cannot and do not do themselves. He describes the new teacher education program being restructured at the University of Toronto, especially goals for the program.

Teachers of the future must be both sound teachers and collaborative change agents. Restructuring has failed so far to affect the teaching-learning core and professional culture. "*To restructure is not to reculture.*" (16)

He and Andy Hargreaves developed 12 guidelines for action in what he calls "interactive professionalism":
1. locate, listen to, and articulate your inner voice
2. practice reflection in action, on action, and about action
3. develop a risk-taking mentality
4. trust processes as well as people
5. appreciate the total person in working with others
6. commit to working with colleagues
7. seek variety and avoid balkanization

8. redefine your role to extend beyond the classroom
9. balance work and life
10. push and support principals and other administrators to develop interactive professionalism
11. commit to continuous improvement and perpetual learning
12. monitor and strengthen the connection between your development and students' development
(17)

In new conceptions of the professional teacher, principals are a "diversion" and perhaps a "liability." "In a real sense, what gives the contemporary principalship inflated importance is the absence of leadership opportunities on the part of teachers." (17)

Fullan wants to see action linking teacher preparation and lifelong learning based on moral purpose and change agentry with corresponding restructuring of universities and schools and their relationships. Changing systems takes actions that produce breakthroughs that become new paradigms. "The new paradigm for teacher professionalism synthesizes the forces of moral purpose and change agentry." (17)

Fullan, Michael & Hargreaves, A. (1991). *What's worth fighting for? Working together for your school.* Andover: Regional Laboratory of the North East and Islands.

ERIC Abstract: Two challenges that face educators--developing interactive professionalism in the schools, and facilitating teachers and principals as change agents--are examined in this book. Chapter 1 examines the following problem areas in educational change: overload; isolation; "groupthink"; untapped competence; narrow roles; and failed reform. A holistic understanding of the teacher is presented in the second chapter, and the social and working conditions of "total schools" are discussed in chapter 3. The paradox of individuality and collegiality is examined, showing how they can be reconciled in order to improve schools. Chapter 4 offers action guidelines for teachers, principals, and educators. Successful reform is based on improving teachers and school working conditions, which in turn leads to student improvement. (82 references) (LMI)

Gehrke, Nathalie. (1991, April). Developing teachers' leadership skills. *ERIC Digest.* Washington, D. C. : ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education.

ERIC Abstract: Teacher leaders often teach full- or part-time while assuming leadership responsibilities. Also, they have often learned new roles just by doing the tasks demanded by those roles. A more systematic approach to helping teachers develop the requisite skills for assuming leadership roles (e.g. department chairs, team and grade leaders, and curriculum committee chairs) is discussed. Emerging opportunities for leadership include three programs: beginning teacher assistance programs, school-centered decision making (site-based management), and professional development schools. Six leadership roles have been identified, which might serve as organizers for the descriptive reports on the formal programs to develop leadership skills: (1) continuing to teach and improve one's own teaching; (2) organizing and leading peer reviews of school practice; (3) providing curriculum development knowledge; (4) participating in school-level decision making; (5) leading in-service education and assisting other teachers; and (6) participating in the performance evaluation of teachers. The digest recommends a more concerted effort to develop programs to replace learning on the job as well as to evaluate teacher leader programs. (SM)

ERIC Digest Text:

There have long been teacher leaders in schools. They have traditionally accepted positions as department chairs, team and grade leaders, curriculum committee chairs, and more. With the advent of school and teacher education restructuring efforts, new leadership roles are emerging (Lieberman & Miller, 1990). Whether taking on traditional or emerging roles, a major characteristic of teacher leaders is that they often teach full- or part-time and then assume other responsibilities (Howey, 1988). An additional characteristic is that they have generally learned the new role just by doing it.

A more systematic approach to developing the requisite skills for assuming leadership roles may be helpful. Whether or not a teacher takes on a formal leadership position, the acquisition of these skills may serve to enhance performance in the classroom.

EMERGING OPPORTUNITIES FOR LEADERSHIP

Beginning Teacher Assistance Programs

Programs such as those developed in Ohio (Zimpher, 1988) and in California require the identification of experienced master teachers to work with beginners. These "mentors" must be able to provide not

only good role modeling, but also offer the kinds of help necessary to establish the beginners as competent professionals. They must know about teaching children AND about teaching adults; they must have a level of expertise that goes beyond being a comforter and a source of practical information.

School-Centered Decision Making

School-centered decision making, also known as site-based management, has been variously interpreted (Sirotnik & Clark, 1988), but in its most authentic form it requires strong teacher involvement in decisions about structures and programs in their schools. School districts that have moved to decentralize decision making have discovered that teachers with conflict resolution and communications skills are more effective. Also helpful is an understanding of the school district's organization and knowledge of the state and federal education scene.

Professional Development Schools (PDS)

Professional development schools call for an array of new teacher leader roles. These PDSs, jointly created by schools and universities (Holmes, 1990), propose to serve as the locus for teacher preparation, career-long professional development, and school innovation and inquiry. Teacher leaders will be called on to demonstrate skills required in mentoring programs and school-based management, as well as skills related to a wide array of peer helping approaches, inquiry methods, innovation leadership, and school-university collaboration.

LEARNING LEADERSHIP SKILLS

In the past, teacher leaders' successes or failures were due more to context, previous experience, and personal characteristics than to any formal effort to provide them with appropriate leadership skills. Teachers have been expected to have the necessary skills on entry into leadership positions, or to develop them on the job.

Lieberman, Saxl, and Miles (1988), in hopes of offering guidance for formal program development for teacher leaders, described in detail the kinds of on-the-job learning of teacher leaders they studied. The teacher leaders reported that they had had to develop competence in several areas including: rapport building, organizational diagnosis, dealing with the change process, finding and using resources, managing the leadership work, and building skills and confidence in others.

Devaney (1987) offered an inclusive list of leadership areas that teachers might be called on to exercise in emerging school

organizations. The six roles she identified can provide an organizer for the descriptive reports on the formal programs to develop leadership skills:

Continuing To Teach and Improve One's Own Teaching

This is the largest category of staff development programs for teacher leadership. Teaching expertise, including subject matter knowledge, seems critical because it is basic to other leadership roles, including in-service education, advising and assisting individual teachers, and peer support. Maeroff (1988) described several programs for enhancing teachers' power by increasing their knowledge of their subject matter. He claimed that the sessions were designed to get teachers accustomed to acting and being perceived as professionals and required them to set the agenda for their own learning.

Organizing and Leading Peer Reviews of School Practice

Programs for the development of teachers' ability to examine school practices must include preparation in doing a form of practical research. Pine (1986) suggested that action research be seen as an ongoing aspect of staff development and that teachers be prepared accordingly. Action research methods have proven useful to teachers in the Puget Sound Educational Consortium who are seeking to enhance their leadership capacities within their individual schools, their districts, and the consortium.

Providing Curriculum Development Knowledge

Curriculum development knowledge may also be seen as requisite to leading peer review of school practice. Klein (1985), for example, discussed the master teacher as a curriculum leader. Perhaps because curriculum development knowledge is seen as a prerequisite to teacher leadership, there are no readily apparent descriptions of programs to develop this knowledge among teacher leaders. Perhaps, too, this is an area where undergraduate and graduate courses are assumed to provide sufficient preparation; such an assumption may be unwarranted.

Participating in School-Level Decision Making

Many articles may be found espousing the importance of teachers' involvement in decision making in their school, but the impression is given that one learns decision making primarily by doing it. The Pittsburgh Public School District is one exception (Johnston, Bickel, & Wallace, 1990). In-house facilitators of organization development are trained to lead problem solving and to conduct process observations in each participating school.

Leading In-Service Education and Assisting Other Teachers

As early as 1982, Joyce and Showers offered guidance to program

creation for teachers in peer coaching. Little, Galagaran, and O'Neal (1984) later offered directions for training of teachers for teacher assistance responsibilities, based on the California experiences in mentor teacher programs and teacher advisor projects. Raney and Robbins (1989) have given a good overview of the cognitive coaching program offered in Sonoma County, California. Hilton, Kuehnle, School, and Zimpher (1988) described an induction program for "invigorating the new and experienced" teachers in Ohio, while Anderson, Asbury, Grossman, Howey, Rentel, and Zimpher (1988) described a peer assistance program, also in Ohio. These latter two efforts have led to the creation of a graduate program in professional development through the Ohio State University.

Participating in the Performance Evaluation of Teachers

The Ohio teacher leader program described by Anderson et al. (1988) prepared teachers not only for assistance roles, but also for performance review of peers. Descriptions have also been given of the Schenley High School Teacher Center and the preparation for teacher assistance and performance review of the Pittsburgh teachers who participate in it (Johnston et al., 1990).

CONCLUSION

As in the larger field of teacher education, there is little evidence of research on the actual effectiveness of the programs offered to develop leadership skills. There are, at best, developers' comments on perceived effectiveness. Perhaps the next five years will see a more concerted effort, not just to develop programs to replace learning on the job, but also to evaluate teacher leader programs and thus enhance not only the programs offered, but the leaders who emerge.

Gehrke, Nathalie. (1988, Jan-Feb). On preserving the essence of mentoring as one form of teacher leadership. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39, (1), 43-45.

ERIC Abstract: The mentor-protégé relationship contains many elements of other important human relationships. Mentoring is described within the framework of Buber's I-Thou theory. Steps to encourage such relationships are given. (JL)

Additional Notes: Mentoring can be a nominal role relationship among teachers or, more rarely, a caring interpersonal one, for which she advocates.

Gehrke cites different writers' descriptions of the mentor role, in which mentors are described as more than master teachers, as leaders, openers of doors, but not as peers. Mentoring includes personal involvement (admiration, respect, gratitude). Both must desire the relationship, which is comprehensive, involving the mentor in the protégés life, not just work.

There are three stages: first, idealism and dependency; second, independence and negotiation; third, independent equals. Mentoring relationships are long lasting.

Gehrke calls mentorship a kind of love relationship. To describe it, she uses Buber's I-It and I-Thou relationships. People often relate to others by using them for utilitarian purposes (I-It). I-Thou relationships are authentic, often occur in brief moments in which we offer ourselves and accept each other as who we really are. They confirm our worth and potential and must be mutual. In helping relationships the helper (more mature) person should reach out with an authentic self, offering a connection that cannot be forced.

Some mentor relationships are seen as utilitarian; for example, some advice is to seek mentors who can help you become successful but not to get involved personally. Classic descriptions of mentors, however, such as Casals and the Count de Morphy, Margaret Mead and Ruth Benedict, include affection. We need to be clear which kind we seek.

Different contexts incubate different kinds of relationships. To promote I-Thou mentoring we need to promote choice (each needs a voice in choosing the other), time (to develop a relationship), negotiation (both a format for and freedom to negotiate), growing independence (the protégé must be encouraged to become increasingly independent), acknowledgment of uniqueness (mentors will create experiences for protégés to develop and test their unique visions), reciprocity (both are helped), a whole life vision (which addresses issues that go beyond the work day, including meshing of home and family life, civic responsibilities, avocational interests), and dialogue ((especially about core teacher questions such as what knowledge is of most worth and how might it best be taught).

The more willing we are to accept I-It relationships, the harder it is to find I-Thou ones. We cannot will them to happen but we can enhance the possibilities.

Gitlin, Andrew David & Price, Karen. (1992). *Teacher empowerment and the development of voice.* Yearbook of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, 61-74.

Notes: The empowerment perspective of teacher evaluation is based on the idea that change is most effective when individuals can freely take a critical look at themselves. The traditional evaluation methods do not generally embrace the empowerment perspective. In traditional evaluation teachers have very little say in determining standards for good teaching.

Typical evaluation is built on several ideas: evaluation is a process that compares a set of predetermined standards, evaluation is a one-way process from the evaluator to the observed teacher, evaluation reflects ahistorical and technical knowledge, evaluation takes on a competitive view. Empowerment forms of evaluation aim to develop teachers' voice.

Horizontal evaluation is an empowerment approach in which teachers analyze the difference between their intentions and their practices. There are three methods which clarify the relationship between these educational intentions and practices, communication analysis, historical perspective, and challenge statements. These methods are used to strengthen the relationship between the evaluator and the observer.

Horizontal evaluation proceeds by analyzing standards,which teachers should be active in determining. Both evaluator and observer work together to understand teaching in this alternative form of evaluation. This approach also takes in to effect the history of a particular observation. The empowerment approach builds collegial relations, and allows teachers to share ideas. It does not isolate teachers, and leave them silent like the traditional administrative evaluation model.The goal of horizontal evaluation is for individuals to utilize skills gained through dialogue in alternative teaching methods.

Glickman, Carl. (1990, Sept). Pushing School Reform to a new edge: 7 ironies of school empowerment. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 72, (1), 68-75.

ERIC Abstract: So far, the results of school restructuring efforts have been more rhetorical than real. As several University of Georgia project illustrate, the work of newly decentralized, empowered schools embodies both high excitement and high anxiety. The contradictions of empowerment lie in attempting inimitable innovations while withstanding uncertainty and outside criticism. Includes 12 reference s. (MLH)

Notes: The author is wary of people jumping on the school restructuring bandwagon without assessing the risks and realizing it takes courage to sustain such changes.

He believes in site-based shared governance initiatives but thinks that if people go into them without a clear picture of the issues, the reforms may fail and then legislatures will take the failures as further evidence of the need to monitor and regulate teachers and schools. "In essence, educators will be given greater latitude over curricular and instructional decisions as long as those decisions recognize the dual objectives of equal access to knowledge for all students and accountability to the public for results." (69)

There are many restructuring projects underway (many done in reaction to legislative attempts to monitor), but so far the results have been "more rhetorical than real." (69) From his experiences in Georgia, he proposes seven ironies of empowerment, not as a critic but as a proponent who thinks this may be the last chance in our lifetimes to remake schools.

The University of Georgia has sponsored two groups, the Program for School Improvement (PSI) and the League of Professional Schools in Georgia. Glickman describes four school change successes, saying all these schools are characterized by both high excitement and high anxiety; it is difficult to work in a situation in which ambiguity and uncertainty are the norm.

Seven ironies come with the territory of a "noble cause":
1)<u>The more an empowered school improves, the more apparent it is that there's more to be improved.</u> Teachers confront factors that earlier seemed unimportant; knowledge can make us dissatisfied with what we are doing. <u>2)The more an empowered school is recognized for its success, the more non-empowered schools criticize it.</u> Hardworking people in other schools may be jealous of

the attention, efforts at the changing schools challenge the lack of similar efforts at other schools, and there are real questions about whether the change is real. Glickman thinks the second explanation is most common. 3)The more an empowered school works collectively, the more individual differences and tensions among the staff members become obvious. Tensions become public and have to be dealt with but despite frustrations, teachers report they did not want to return to past conditions. 4) The more an empowered school becomes a model of success, the less the school becomes a practical model to be imitated by other schools. His demonstration sites are often not exportable; they work "not because they are so meticulously crafted and engineered but because the faculty in these schools will not let them fail." (72) "The *process* is more transferable than the program." (72) There is a basic contradiction in mandating shared governance or empowerment or a model of decisionmaking. "Our objective should not be to transfer programs but to develop the knowledge that leads to the full use of professional and collective wisdom." (72) 5)The more a school becomes empowered, the more it hesitates to act. When there is no perceived enemy holding a school back faculty have to decide if they really want what they say they want and act on it. 6)The more an empowered school has to gain, the more it has to lose. Early changes bring immediate short-term gains but public relations and projecting a positive image of the school can become overriding concerns, because educators think school change is linear and progressive, with schools getting better every year. School success is neither linear nor uniform. "What should drive the efforts of an empowered school are *patterns* of improved learning." (73) 7) The more an empowered school resembles a democracy, the more it must justify its own existence to the most vocal proponents of democracy. Many school people find it difficult to believe that a school principal will have an equal vote, that schools can run democratically but public schools are public institutions to educate citizens in a democracy and should operate democratically.

Pushing school reform to a new edge means those involved in empowerment must deal its ultimate effects. Most of his change schools still look like ordinary schools (there is no use of high technology, for instance) but students are doing better and there is a stronger sense of community. "..we chose ordinary schools that shared the belief that the most significant structural change for the future of public education would not be the quick adoption of an innovation but a change in the way teachers view their work.." (74)

The empowerment movement has potential to make teaching a career in which a community of professionals can work on behalf of students through critical inquiry and collective dialogue. Civil participation in government is an end in itself. Empowered schools are better because of the way that teachers, administrators, and students treat each other. Democracy is not efficient and can produce bad decisions, but is "the core belief that unites us as a people." (75). The empowerment movement is key to the democratizing movement across the world, is the key to producing truly literate citizens. Living on the edge is dangerous but gives the feeling of being alive.

Glickman, Carl D., Ed. (1992). *Supervision in Transition: 1992 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.* CS: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Alexandria, Va.

ERIC Abstract: Current restructuring of education calls for more teacher involvement in the planning and delivery of instruction. This yearbook gives examples of teacher involvement as it updates the supervision process. Four sections include 13 essays by various authors. The first section is entitled "The Context" and includes four essays: (1) "Policy and Supervision" (Linda Darling-Hammond with Eileen Sclan); (2) "Searching for a Common Purpose: A Perspective on the History of Supervision" (Frances S. Bolin and Philip Panaritis); (3) "Changing Perspectives in Curriculum and Instruction" (James Nolan and Pam Francis); and (4) "Teacher Empowerment and the Development of Voice" (Andrew Gitlin and Karen Price). The second section, entitled "The Practice," also includes four essays: (1) "Restructuring in a Large District: Dade County Florida" (Gerald O. Dreyfuss, Peter J. Cistone, and Charles Divita, Jr.); (2) "Peer Assistance in a Small District: Windham Southeast, Vermont" (Susan James, Daniel Heller, and William Ellis); (3) "School Renewal in Chaska, Minnesota, Independent District #112" (Jean A. King and Carol J. Ericson); and (4) "A View from the Central Office" (Edward F. Pajak). Section 3, entitled "The Preparation," includes three essays: (1) "Collegial Support by Teacher Mentors and Peer Consultants" (Nancy L. Zimpher and John E. Grossman); (2) "Restructuring Student Teaching Experiences" (Amy Bernstein Colton and Georgea Sparks-Langer); and (3) "Linking Preservice and Inservice Supervision Through Professional Inquiry" (Patricia E. Holland, Renee Clift, and Mary Lou Veal with Marlene Johnson and Jane McCarthy). The last section, entitled "The Reflection," contains two essays: (1) "The

Transformation of Supervision" (Peter P. Grimmett, Olaf P. Rostad, and Blake Ford); and (2) "Moral Authority and the Regeneration of Supervision" (Thomas J. Sergiovanni). (327 references) (LAP)

Hallinger, Philip & Richardson, Don T. (1988, Win). Models of shared leadership: Evolving structures and relationships. *Urban Review*, 20, (4), 229-45.

ERIC Abstract: Explores potential changes in the power relationships among teachers and principals. Describes and analyzes the following models of teacher decision-making: (1) Instructional Leadership Teams; (2) Principals' Advisory Councils; (3) School Improvement Teams; and (4) Lead Teacher Committees. (FMW)

Additional Notes: Following *A Nation at Risk*, state education agencies passed legislation for top down change to raise standards for students and teachers; critics initiated a second-wave of reform which includes having teachers involved, though implications for the emerging roles are not always clear.

This paper tries to gauge potential changes in power relationships among teachers and principals under four emerging forms of structured teacher involvement in schoolwide decisionmaking. The usefulness of the models is measured against their ability to address issues of teaching as a professional career and improving student learning. The four models are Principal Advisory Councils (PACs), school improvement teams, instructional leadership teams, and lead teacher committees. The paper is a conceptual, not empirical analysis, of these models as seen being implemented in schools.

Using Kanter's model of power and powerlessness in organizations, the author proposes that traditional school structure limits teachers' productive power. He contends that each of the four alternative models, when well-implemented, can result in greater empowerment for teachers. There are, however, substantial differences among the models in terms of potential impact.

The most importance differences are the degree of formal authority vested in the teachers and the purpose of the decisionmaking body. The two models in which teachers are vested with formal authority, the school improvement team and the lead teacher committee, provide teachers with significant access to power. Although the

instructional support team has less formal authority, it had significant potential for increasing teacher instructional leadership and may generate greater productive power with less pressure on the organization for change. The Principal's Advisory Council can promote faculty involvement but is more limited than the others because it depends on the principal for authority and has a non-instructional focus.

Harris, Judy White. (1987,Aug). Teacher and leader—Why we must be both. *Vocational Education Journal,* 62, (5), 26-28.

ERIC Abstract: National Vocational Teacher of the Year. She argues that vocational teachers must be involved in their professional associations and suggests ways that they can find the time and support to do so. (CH)

As National Vocational Teacher of the Year the author feels that teachers should become active members of professional groups. Administrative support should be gained before attempting to take on a leadership role. Teachers should make sure to prepare lessons for substitute teachers when they are out of the classroom. Teacher leaders need mentors who help them become involved. Mentors should help vocational teachers make the transition from performing their vocation to teaching it. The author feels that the different groups she was associated with helped her as a teacher. She was able to develop professionally through workshops, share curricula, and establish networking relationships. Involvement in associations also enabled this teacher leader to become politically aware. Participation in professional groups helps vocational teachers bring businesses and industries to their students and adds to the curriculum in their classrooms.

Hatfield, Robert C. *et al.* (1986, Feb). *Exploring leadership roles performed by teaching faculty in K-12 schools.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago.

ERIC Abstract: A three-phase investigation studied the nature of extended professional roles (in terms of leadership) among kindergarten through twelfth-grade teachers in Michigan through interviews, a survey of job titles, and a survey of teacher-leaders. Data were collected on professional assignments, work organizational styles, perception of leadership roles, working

relationship with peers, educational philosophy, and ways teachers would change their job descriptions and why. Findings show that a large number of teachers are currently engaged in extended professional roles. The teachers have responsibilities cutting across most segments of the school program, including areas of curriculum, staff development, policy, and evaluation. Teacher-leaders indicated that organizational conditions related to their extended role were critical to being effective in their job. They also indicated frustration when confronted with carrying out two major roles. Strong interest was seen in developing a communications network for teacher-leaders for new ideas about carrying out their roles. (CB)

Additional Notes: This report summarizes findings from a two-year study of teachers with roles in the school organization in addition to teaching. A Task Force of professionals from all areas of school life identified the jobs and individuals in them, interviewed five for information which formed the basis of a questionnaire, then surveyed a cross section of teacher leaders.

The task force identified 10-20% of the teaching population as holding additional roles in the school organization and listed over 70 different job titles. They found teacher leaders to be experienced (on average, with 18 years experience and 16 within district). Nearly half held more than one extended role. There was great variation in job descriptions, with department chairs being most common. Selection was primarily by administrative appointment. 63% received some kind of financial compensation with others occasionally given release time. They indicated a high level of satisfaction and success in their extended roles and a belief that it was helpful to their advancement in the profession. They received support in the form of materials more than other kinds of support, especially time. Their tasks were varied and they had multiple responsibilities, many in curriculum and instruction, but related to all aspects of the school and program, reflecting contributions important to the operation of the school but frequently without formal sanction.

The author contents that the need for specific job descriptions for teacher leaders is crucial. In selection, he found an incongruity between teacher leaders being selected by administrators with the purpose of serving teachers. Teachers listed six attributes of good teacher leaders, a blend of the professional and personal— adept

with people; skilled communicators; flexible, patent, objective; competent in subject field; organized and committed to role. All cited need for good administrative support and difficulty in the face of conflict. The communication among teacher leaders and between them and other school personnel was vague, unstructured.

The questions of whether extended professional roles for teacher leaders can be an incentive and whether the roles can be more fully integrated into schools need further examination. Organizational conditions related to their extended role were critical to their job; they were often frustrated by assuming two major roles simultaneously (leadership and teaching).

The author concludes that extended professional roles for teachers has potential for increased teacher participation in decisionmaking and could serve as a means for increased rewards. If teacher leaders had similar responsibilities greater attention could be paid to training and collaboration, and enhancing the roles that exist appears more viable than establishing new and perhaps competing roles.

Hatfield, Robert C. (1990, Oct). Designing Faculty Curriculum Leader Roles. Resources In Education.

ERIC Abstract: The faculty curriculum leader is envisioned as a teacher with some portion of time allocated to activities, other than direct instruction, that encompass a variety of responsibilities related to curriculum, staff, and organizational and instructional needs and improvement. This role would be assumed by individuals with formal or informal responsibilities. This paper presents a synthesis of studies and conceptual views of this role. In the first part of the paper, the purposes and goals to be achieved by faculty curriculum leaders are described, e.g., leadership for improving and evaluating the curriculum, staff development, and the design of practice. The rationale for the faculty curriculum leader role is set forth in the second part of the paper. The final part of the paper outlines organizational elements for implementing the faculty curriculum leader's role: (1) role description, authority, qualifications; (2) communications and networking; (3) facilities and resources; (4) incentives, rewards, and recognition; (5) preparation and skill development; and (6) activities and operating procedures. (JD)

Additional Notes: From a study of the organization of schools and the literature on leadership, the author has evolved the concept of Faculty Curriculum Leader, which he conceives as different from lead teacher, career ladder, master teacher, department chair, and other commonly discussed roles but which may apply to people in those positions and which "requires a minimum of reorganization, new policies, and legislation to establish." (1)
He defines a Faculty Curriculum Leader as a teacher with some time apportioned to curriculum work.

By analyzing studies of related jobs, the author identified the following purposes and goals for Faculty Curriculum Leaders:

1. Leadership for improvement and evaluation of the curriculum, staff development, and practice
The author cites Sergiovanni for five forces of leadership--technical, human, educational, symbolic, and cultural--as qualitative aspects of leadership, and Doherty, Cooper, McDonald, and Hatfield for discussions of the role now in practice at different sites.

2. Support of teachers
Gersten identified four major support functions--giving feedback about instruction, providing incentives, demonstrating commitment, and monitoring student progress. The author reviews descriptions from the field of personal and professional support from Solo, Rosenholtz and Smylie, Bean and Eichelberger, Ritchie, and LeBreton.

3. Input and articulation between teacher and institution
The author cites Goodlad's and Spector's work as support for focusing on school culture.

4. Preceptor for interns
The author notes programs to aid beginning teachers in Charlotte-Mecklenburg, California, and various career ladder programs.

Dalton identified four stages in career development (apprenticeship, independence, mentoring, status for influencing organizational operations), determining that it appears multiple roles are important for professional workers.

The rationale for a curriculum leader role rests on the responsibilities or functions of teaching, the present roles of

teacher leaders, the school organizational culture, and professional opportunities for advancement

Elements central to the new role include a job description, communications and networking, resources, support and recognition, preparation and skill development, and operating procedures.

The author proposes the organization of the knowledge base presented here can provide a format for describing and developing a comprehensive model for the role of faculty curriculum leader.

Hattrup, Rosemary A., & Bickel, William E. (1993, Mar). Teacher-researcher collaborations: Resolving the tensions. *Educational Leadership,* 50, (6), 38-40.

ERIC Abstract: Thinking Mathematics is an American Federation of Teachers program that united teachers and researchers in face-to-face dialogue aimed at translating mathematics research into professional development material for teachers. Teachers played an increasingly prominent role, evolving into the primary decision makers about content, style, and the nature of training activities. (eight references) (MLH)

Additional Notes: The Thinking Mathematics project is a collaborative effort sponsored by the AFT to turn math research into professional development materials for teachers. Teachers eventually became primary decision makers but it took work for teachers and Learning Research Development Center (LRDC) researchers to learn to work together.

Important characteristics for teachers were an ability to relate research to instructional experiences and intellectual flexibility. The researchers needed to be able to talk to teachers by supporting their knowledge base and speaking without jargon. The common purpose of improving math instruction and learning was not enough to bring the two cultures of teacher and researcher together because they valued different knowledge bases; the researchers took the role of being the primary sources of knowledge; researchers were used to flexible schedules with time for reflection while teachers worked on tight schedules with little peer interaction or reflection, which structured their thinking; researchers had little opportunity to gain the kind of reward that was important to them, publications, while teachers gained much that was valuable to them, such as

disseminating practical information. Researchers viewed their role as empowering teachers and demystifying information (simplifying it) for the classroom but this bypassed teachers' clinical knowledge. After restructuring in year two of the project, teachers modeled their clinical experience through exemplary lessons and teachers assumed leadership roles including product refinement, leading workshops, presenting to school boards, writing papers, editing newsletters. Assumptions about roles were redefined over time to create a reasonable balance between the world of researcher and teacher.

Herren, Ray V. (1989, Nov). The teacher as a situational leader. *The Agricultural Education Magazine* , 62, 12-13.

Notes: As we approach the twenty-first century, we need to prepare students for change in the manner that vocational agriculture programs have always done, through leadership development. Leadership is hard to define but can be taught. The Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, North Carolina, uses a model of situational leadership with four styles--structuring (for followers with limited abilities or little motiviation), coaching (for students with high ability and motivatin), encouraging (for students who have ability and selfconfidence to work on their own), and delegating (for students who can work with little supervision).

Holcomb, Edie L. (1993, October). The rule for role change: show, don't tell. *Educational Leadership*, 51, (2), 17-18.

Notes: Common reactions to a shift to participatory decisionmaking at the school level include teachers saying things are not very different from before. Deal and Peterson point out that expectations are communicated both technically and symbolically. The author has worked with creative administrators who demonstrate role shifts through formal and informal behavior changes--nonverbal (one principal broke eye contact waiting for teachers to speak in meetings), personal reminders (superintendent had put a sign reading 'who else?' in his office to remind him to consider who else should be involved), visible opportunity (a write-on suggestion wall in the teacher's lounge), collective strategy (seeing evidence that the district supports the state mandate for site based management such as administrators and board in training sessions, a re drawn organization chart, district-level teams, funds, time, no revising of

building plans, inquiries and complaints referred back to the building). New leaders must consciously model new behaviors.

Howey, Kenneth R. (1990, Jan-Feb). Changes in teacher education: needed leadership and new networks. *Journal of Teacher Education* , 41, (1), 3-9.

Notes: A lack of collective rather than individual leadership puts constraints on teacher education. Leadership creates the conditions for professional collaboration but it is sustained by reciprocal benefits. The key is defining group membership, bringing new perspectives while validating the best of what is and providing time and resources. Over time a group learns to benefit from one another, but if a group is given a duty and works on its own on a fixed timeline the result is often "a compliant and rather doleful change effort." (3)

The Holmes Group has been a catalyst for teacher education reform but has not achieved its potential. It has nurtured an elitist attitude, which was not a bad tactic initially but networking would have helped more institutions make progress. It provided impetus but the results are a form of "procedural display. " They wanted quick results; the post-baccalaureate program was the response, but programs (including curriculum) have not changed.

New networks can yield new conceptual relationships. People in different areas talk mainly among themselves. Networks of key people in different roles, strong interaction among different stakeholders, could develop better programs.

Developing networks calls for special leadership. There is a lack of consensus regarding the future direction of teacher education. The author discusses two approaches, the knowledge base and a national consortium such as the Holmes Group.

With NCATE standards including the knowledge base and publication of the knowledge base compendium, programs are documenting how they addresses content, but a balance of content and process is needed. Professional discourse should set curriculum, transcending individual programs. Craft knowledge, not just scientific findings, propositional and case knowledge--all different kinds of knowledge should guide the discourse, including a description of lab/clinic classrooms that promote formal and practical reasoning. The lack of

discourse can be traced to the lack of leadership to bring different parties with different perspectives together. Teachers must be involved in the dialogue.

The Holmes Group opened debate and some programs are moving to the post-baccalaureate level, but lately the Holmes Group has a "stranglehold on communications and decision-making;" what has happened in program renewal is not deep, thoughtful, or innovative, and has not raised greater enthusiasm. Holmes is not responsible for teacher educators who haven't changed but is responsible for what it hasn't done in terms of using networks, being a political force, and being a model for leadership. Some people have supported each other but their efforts did not achieve the status of network, which includes regular communication, division of labor, breadth and richness of membership. Leadership is needed to identify good people, distribute power, maintain focus. "What has not been achieved are networks of powerful people, especially persons who are directly involved in teacher education, across different campuses in the institutions that joined Holmes." (7) Possible core tasks include white papers, instructional aids, a lab or clinic facilities, prototypes for teacher induction, a study of program attributes. Holmes could offer political agendas and more political support at the state level and across states.

Howey is less optimistic than six years ago. What is needed is collective will and networks with action agendas.

Howey, Kenneth R. (1988, Jan-Feb). Why teacher leadership? *Journal of Teacher Education* , 39, (1), 28-31.

ERIC Abstract: Increased demands for excellence in education require teachers to assume leadership positions to address and respond to criticisms of public education. The merits of teacher leadership and ways in which it can be manifested are defined and examined. (JL)

Additional Notes: Public education problems are long-standing and pervasive but resolvable through better understanding and the collective will.

"The most important key to developing a collective will to overcome many of our commonplace problems is leadership." 28

Leadership is more than knowing or acting; it is getting others to act together when otherwise they might not have, to "scale heights of human achievement and plunge depths of human caring not otherwise envisioned." (28)

Leadership in formal roles has been lacking in education. We have made progress in some areas--are more clear on effective schools, teaching, materials than we were a decade ago.

"The advocacy for teacher leadership stems from the proposition that what is fundamentally needed are highly competent leaders who reside where the problems primarily are--in schools--and who can address these in a continuing, collective manner" which involves selected teachers who teach part of the time and have knowledge and skill extending beyond their own teaching.

Studies support decisionmaking at the level of those responsible for implementing the decisions. Principal on the whole have not been much more successful than external agents in changing instruction.

Needed is a clear division of labor among teachers, the need for collaboration in planning the curriculum and instructional activities, and feedback. Many school teams only approximate what is needed because there is no initial teacher preparation, there isn't adequate time, it demands a price from teachers, and the teams were limited by a lack of leadership. More creative teacher roles didn't evolve because of the lack of leadership; instead, people protected turf.

"There is simply no sound basis for arguing that all teachers should spend basically all of their time teaching youngsters." (30) Our limitations in conceiving the role of teacher detract from quality of instruction.

"Teacher leadership can be manifested in modeling methods of teaching, serving in an advisor capacity to other teaches, coaching, mentoring beginning teachers, studying aspects of classroom life, jointly developing curriculum, structuring problem identification and resolution, strengthening school-home relationships or developing instructional materials. Finally, selected teacher leaders can contribute significantly to fuller professionalization by inquiring as teachers periodically into what contributes to optimal learning in the classroom. (30)

A more appropriate image is career lattices rather than career ladders for fluid and flexible roles not dependent on hierarchy but not antithetical either.

Career ladder works in some contexts, can be seen connected to longer preparation and continuing practice, with three rungs—the lowest rung for those still completing initial education, the middle rung for fully licensed professionals, and the upper rung for leaders whose "prerequisites for eligibility are not only further experience, proven excellence as a teacher, and the disposition and ability to work with adults but also considerably further preparation."

In dealing with salary differences, he suggests lower salary bases for interns and beginners and higher increases for top rung teachers, with stipends to minorities underrepresented in teaching.

Huffman, Sharon E. (1992, Fall). Teacher leadership: Roles, contextual variables, and effects on teacher colleagues in selected elementary schools. *Illinois School Research and Development*, 28, (1), 5-5.

Notes: A study of four teachers who held formal leadership positions in four suburban schools identified varied responsibilities, reasons for the existence of the roles, personal characteristics, and training. Closely related to potential success were context factors such as time for collaborative work, existing organizational structures, and school cultural patterns. The teachers reported positive effects on their colleagues' classroom instruction and their own teaching.

Hynes, John L., Summers, Pamela., & Socoski, Patrick M. (1992, Fall/Winter). Making the lead teacher concept work: the southeastern teacher leadership center. *Teaching Education*, 5, (1), 43-9.

Notes: The concept of lead teacher is central to restructuring schools, moving them away from factory-model production. The Southeastern Teacher Leadership Center (STLC) exists to help teachers assume new roles. The Center's philosophy has two parts, that individuals can develop leadership skills but that leadership is a group activity. The Center offers leadership training and interpersonal skills training. They work with school teams to reshape administrators' and teachers' roles in programs tailored to individual schools.

The Center offers needs assessments, workshops, and staff development. Their major program is a Leadership Seminar with three parts, sessions at the beginning and end of summer and follow-up through the school year. Before the first session, school teams take tests to assess each individual's leadership skills and style so the STLC can tailor workshops to the team. Follow-up during the year includes a seminar session in October, school visits as needed, and a spring seminar.

The Center reports evidence of change, including teachers' attesting to greater confidence in their knowledge base and leadership skills, evidence of positive action in schools, and increased professional activity. One specific outcome is the development of a new lead teacher role, "House Director," now used in some Philadelphia City Schools.

The Center is funded through an annual grant to Philadelphia City Schools and is based at West Chester University.

Jandura, Ronald M., & Burke, Peter J. *Differentiated Career Opportunities for Teachers.* Phi Delta Kappan Fastback 287 Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa.

ERIC Abstract: This document describes a program in District 742 Community Schools in St. Cloud, Minnesota, called Differentiated Career Opportunities for Teachers. This multifaceted program empowers selected teachers with the authority to make decisions and plan programs for their district and individual schools and, at the same time, to renew their professional lives. Through a system of 3-year temporary assignments with additional compensation and protection of their seniority, classroom teachers take on a variety of leadership roles. The program has been in operation since 1984 and appears to be working well. (JD)

Johnson, Daniel P. (1989, Nov). *Education reform through shared leadership: Define, design, and develop rather than decree.* Paper presented at the 14th Annual Conference of the National Council of States on Inservice Education, San Antonio.

ERIC Abstract: Increasingly, teachers are complaining that they have been left out of the decision-making process in terms of curriculum

development. There has been a growing impetus for shared decision making and shared leadership. A curriculum mapping process is described which was successfully implemented in a large middle school. Through this mapping process, teachers listed the learning outcomes which existed in their taught curriculum. After developing educational goals and conducting education needs assessments, this curriculum mapping process was used to develop a Curriculum Monitoring Process. This consisted of three phases: (1)developing a written curriculum keyed to teachers' daily implementation through a learning outcome checklist; (2) monitoring curriculum implementation through a learning outcomes checklist; and (3) analyzing the congruence among the written, taught, tested, and learned curricula. The curriculum guide used to develop the written curriculum lists the department, strand, and grade level, the general concepts, time allotted to teach each concept, the learning outcomes indicating concept mastery, available resources, and method of evaluation. How this Curriculum Monitoring System was developed and implemented is described and briefly evaluated. (JD)

Additional Notes: The education reform movement has been shaped by various factors, including the economic sense that America is losing its competitive edge and business needs to the job of the schools (e.g., teaching people to read). In addition, there is a shift in the work ethic from self-denial to self-fulfillment. The author questions whether the shift in values is part of the change in schools, with teachers and the public less willing to follow authority and wanting more part in decisionmaking. The impetus for school reform has not come from school people.

The author reviews Fullan's 10 assumptions about change, then notes Hall, Wallace, and Dorset's 6 stages of change, which he recommends for school personnel dealing with reform. He notes that research seems to indicate that when people are involved in the process change has a better chance of being implemented.

Based on these assumptions, the author created a curriculum development process which is a set of structures around four questions: why do we exist? what do we do to accomplish our mission (our curriculum)? how do we deliver the curriculum? and to what extent are we accomplishing our mission (evaluation)?

The author's district has shared leadership in the District Accountability Advisory Committee, which represents all aspects of

the school community and addresses philosophy and process. The author developed a Curriculum Monitoring Process in which teachers key a written curriculum to daily lesson plans, use a learning outcomes checklist, and analyze the congruence among written, taught, tested, and learned aspects of the curriculum. Using the Curriculum Monitoring Process encourages teachers to be curriculum decision makers and analytic professionals.

Johnson, Susan Moore. (1990). *Teachers at Work: Achieving Success in Our Schools*. Scranton: Harper Collins Publishers.

ERIC Abstract: In school reform studies little attention has been paid to context, i.e., the structures, standards, norms, and practices that enable and encourage teachers to do their best work. In contrast, this study concentrates on the workplace (the school) as it is experienced by teachers: physical setting and resources; organizational structures; relationships among colleagues, clients, and superiors; influence in governance; cultural norms and traditions; opportunities for learning and growth; and the role of pay and incentives. The sample of 115 teachers, drawn from a pool of teachers recommended by their principals as being above average, includes 75 from public schools, 20 from independent schools, and 20 from church-related schools in eastern Massachusetts. The 11 chapters cover the following topics: (1) a broad look at work and workplaces; (2) introduction to the respondents; (3) the politics of space and supplies; (4) the importance of close home-school relationships; (5) the bureaucratic structures of public schools and their unsuitability for teaching and learning; (6) teachers' isolation and ways of promoting collegiality; (7) teachers and governance; (8) lessons from private schools on the importance of building community and nurturing values, traditions, and norms; (9) promotion of the learning and growth of teachers; (10) teacher salaries; and (11) school reform in light of the study findings, outlining the features of a model workplace, proposing policies, and analyzing necessary changes in attitudes and roles. An appendix explains the methodology and supplies a sample interview guide. (AMH)

Johnston, J., & Bickel, W. & Wallace, R. (1990). Building and sustaining change in the culture of secondary schools. *Educational Leadership*, 47 (8), 46-48.

Additional Notes: Over the last decade, Pittsburgh schools have participated in a multifaceted reform movement.

Phase I: Renewal for Individual Teachers: In 1983 the district opened a Teacher Center at Schenley High School which focused on individual teachers. Secondary school teachers from the other 11 schools visited the center in groups of 50 for 8 weeks, had structured experiences, updated their content knowledge and adolescent development information. The evaluation of the Center was positive and Schenley staff benefited from planning for visiting teachers. The general feeling was that staff development at "home" was desirable.

Phase II: In 1986 the district began the Centers of Excellence Program, which emphasized school-based professional development and shared decisionmaking. Each school had a cabinet and on-site projects with three stages (development, implementation, dissemination). At each school a teacher became project facilitator, teaching a maximum of three periods per day. The assessment so far is that shared decisionmaking is a significant change which demands time, support, and redesigning of roles. The facilitator role in Phase II is crucial; it is important that this person is a member of the faculty. District support is important, as are resources. Unresolved issues include better assessment, focusing on problem solving in cabinets, and having all administrators supporting reform objectives including giving cabinets important areas for decisionmaking. The program tried to encourage the development of a professional climate in which personnel both guide and are recipients of change.

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1982). The coaching of teaching. *Educational Leadership*, 40 (1), 4-10.

Notes: Eight high school English teachers study the teaching model Synectics to improve creative writing and the study of fiction and poetry. They read the book, have an expert in to demonstrate the strategy, watch a videotape, visit a school that uses the strategy, plan mini lessons, practice the strategy, then try it out in teams of two with able students in some classes. Each practices several times with a coaching partner to help reflect on their progress. They continue to work in teams, later re-read the literature and revisit their model school, have the consultant back again, and continue to coach each other.

With study, observation, and practice with feedback, most teachers can use a new teaching model but only with coaching will they transfer the new model into their active repertoire. Transfer is aided by forecasting, a high quality of skill training, and developing a meta understanding of how the model works.

The authors recommend a coaching environment for all teachers routinely. It provides companionship, technical feedback, analysis of application/extension of executive control, and facilitation.

There are parallels with athletic training such as working as a team and getting worse before you get better, but athletes do not believe mastery is achieved quickly or easily, not in one-day workshops. Teachers must organize themselves into groups for the purpose of training themselves and each other.

Keedy, John L. (1991, March). *A strategy to develop teacher leadership for school restructuring: Teacher collegial groups*. Annual Meeting of the American Association of School Administrators. New Orleans, Louisiana.

ERIC Abstract: Schooling has long reflected a bureaucratized, assembly line organization. The National Governors' Association has advocated a systematic restructuring of schools to increase student learning. This paper has four goals: (1) to define school restructuring; (2) to suggest how principals, teachers, and students may forge new relationships; (3) to suggest teacher collegial groups (TCGs) as an effective strategy for principals desiring to help staff assume challenging professional roles; and (4) to share some positive and some problematic results of a 2-year school site experiment with TCGs. Data collected through participant observation, focused interviewing, and questionnaires were analyzed, using qualitative case study techniques. Year 1 results showed that teachers improved their instruction through their TCG participation, although they had some difficulty formulating year-long foci and identifying game plans. In the second year, foci and game plans were subjected to content analysis; findings indicate that contrived collegiality might have occurred. Organizational cultures encouraging the norms of collegiality and experimentation may be difficult to institutionalize in schools. Further teacher collegiality research is needed. (13 references) (MLH)

Additional Notes: This paper reports on a joint school-college project with Teacher Collegial Groups. In the first year, a TCG was field tested; in the second year, four TCGs were implemented in the school. Keedy defines school restructuring, suggests how people could related to each other in restructuring schools, proposes TCGs as an effective strategy for principals to use to prepare their staffs to take on new and challenging professional roles, and shares positive and problematic results of two years of site experimentation with TCGs.

Following Murphy, the author sees restructuring occurring along four dimensions: school-based management, teacher empowerment, parent and student school choice, and teaching for understanding. New possibilities implied in each dimension include new relationships between teacher and principal, schools as collaborative workplaces, the possibility that schools could become market driven via national assessments of student performance on specific outcomes, and telecommunications for student learning.

TCG's can take several forms, are based in part on Kelley's workshop learning. In this format, each teacher formulates a year-long focus for a series of meetings (8-10 per year); there are six to eight teachers per group. Teachers deliberate on alternatives to established practice, use action research to try out "game plans" and reflect together.

AT the end of year 1 the author claims TCGs can be successful with "judicious planning and district/school-level support"; teachers can institute new strategies "which they (hopefully) will continue to use in their classrooms." (17)

In Year 2, the author asked three questions:
1. Did the model encourage teachers to be reflective practitioners? The teachers identified year-long focus points and developed game plans but the plans lacked continuity and teachers rarely engaged with others about assessment of overall progress, although their daily and weekly reflection increased.
2)Did the TCG culture among group members become more collegial? There was sharing of materials and mutual help; isolation and classroom autonomy were seen less as hindrances, but peer observation and frequency of discussing teaching practice outside of the TCG did not increase.
3) Did teachers change their established teaching practices?

They changed in three ways: their fear of losing control in the classroom lessened (a part of being willing to experiment), peer pressure influenced them to be prepared at TCG meetings, and they overcame their isolation. But their agreement that change was too difficult because teachers were used to routines increased.

TCGs were well received but may have been what Hargreaves labeled "contrived collegiality." "The TCG program represented a technical framework which the data support as "implemented." Following procedures and exhibiting characteristics of group collegiality and teacher change is not synonymous with internalizing practitioner reflection and instituting a collaborative group culture supporting teacher change." (19-20) This implies program implementation is far easier than resetting norms.

Questions for further study include how to develop reliable and valid measures of collegiality, how state agencies can encourage districts to experiment with TCGs, and how we get principals to actively support collegial opportunities.

Keedy, John L. (1992, April). *Teacher facilitator leadership and school organization mediational effects: Implications on work redesign for instructional supervisors.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: Findings of a study that examined facilitator leadership in three teacher collegial groups (TCGs) and the effect of school organization on facilitator leadership behaviors are presented in this paper. The teacher work redesign program was implemented in a rural Georgian school district to enhance teacher independence and empowerment. Methodology involved field observation; a survey of all TCG participants in three schools, which elicited an 88 percent response rate; and interviews with three participants from each school--the TCG facilitator, the principal, and one TCG member. Findings indicate that teacher work redesign implies the following role changes for supervisors and teachers: (1) supervisors, as networkers, can achieve more efficient teacher supervision; and (2) teachers can act as peer observers, mentors, and staff developers. However TCGs did not lead to teacher reflection or long-term professional growth. The lack of program impact could be due to its 1-year duration and the embedded characteristics of the teaching profession. Six tables are included. Appendices contain information on the TCG meeting format, the survey and findings, an

assessment of teachers' year-long focus and meeting game plans, the interview guide, and field observation notes. (Contains 37 references.) (LMI)

Additional Notes: The author reviews some of the literature related to redesigning teachers' work, noting that though Teacher Work Redesign (TWR) seems an excellent vehicle for improving the profession, current research has mixed results about its success; he cites Nicholson that what teachers do in redesigned roles may not be what they should do and Smylie and Denny that teacher roles were mediated by their organizational contexts. Norms may be the most powerful determinants. "School social units can mitigate the very best intentions of teacher work design." (5)

This study looked at teacher work redesign in the context of the teacher leadership exhibited by facilitators of Teacher Collegial Groups (TCGs), asking two questions: how effective was the leadership of the three facilitators? and what were the organization's mediation effects upon the three facilitators' successful or unsuccessful leadership? The study posits that teachers should be able to practice successful group facilitator leadership in TCGs and that strong facilitator leadership should compensate for organization mediation effects, including traditional teaching norms. The study used field observations, surveys, interviews, and teacher self-reported data. The author details results at three separate sites then draws the following general conclusions.

Two facilitators were judged effective and one ineffective. The effective facilitators provided more technical support (worksheets, meeting formats, questions), kept members on task, provided empathic and professional environments; one provided varied logistical support.

Traditional teacher norms of cordiality, privacy, and autonomy were not seen to affect facilitators' roles. The organization supported the two successful facilitators by means of principal support, the voluntary nature of the project, and "good press" from TCG group members. The organizational mediation effects on the ineffective facilitator were "problematic": her possible motive of moving into administration and the principal's failure to visit the group may have set a less supportive environment. Other influencing factors may have been one successful facilitators' need to justify the

continuation of her position, personal presence, and normative rights to influence through collegial interaction. Implications for supervisors include a consideration of working with teacher groups rather than one-on-one for observation and evaluation; supervisors as networkers could transform traditional teacher roles but it will not be easy.

Kenney, Jane L., & Roberts, Jane M. E. (1984, April). *Teachers as instructional leaders.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

ERIC Abstract: This study examined the roles, functions, and effectiveness of a group of teachers who became Instructional Leaders (ILs), assuming major responsibility for assuring the implementation of a voluntary school improvement program within their respective schools. The program, called SITIP (School Improvement Through Instructional Process), and initiated by the Maryland State Department of Education, supported local education agencies in their adoption and (School Improvement Through Instructional Process), and initiated by the Maryland State Department of Education, supported local education agencies in their adoption and implementation of four research-based instructional models: Active Teaching; Mastery Learning; Student Team Learning; and Teaching Variables. Data were collected for the IL study from local educators, students, and state technical assistants in the form of observational interviews, questionnaires, and document analysis. Factors or conditions related to the success of teachers as ILs are summarized in the form of recommendations. For a teacher to be successful as an IL:(1) implementation in the first year should be limited to the teacher's school; (2) ILs should be given sufficient time to plan and develop enough materials for a complete course before implementation begins; (3) the IL should be involved from the initial phases of planning and training;(4) IL expertise in the instructional model is necessary;(5) IL leadership style should be democratic; (6) the two key tasks of the IL are training and coaching other teachers in the innovation; and (7) administrative support is essential for IL success. (JD)

Additional Notes:This study examines the roles of a group of teachers who became instructional leaders (ILs) in addition to remaining in the classroom. They were responsible for helping to implement a voluntary school improvement program in their respective schools.

The instructional leaders were involved with four models of instruction: active teaching, mastery learning, student team learning and teaching variables. All of the ILs started out in a single school which was familiar to them. The ILs proved to be most helpful when they could work with a few teachers instead of many. The Ils' success also depended on the support of the administrators. It was also important for the ILs to be involved in planning and training.

The instructional leaders were responsible for training, coaching, linking,, developing, monitoring, and publicizing. There was success in these projects when instructional leaders used a democratic process as opposed to an authoritarian one. An effective teacher leader adopts a democratic leadership style which allows teachers to participate in the decision-making process, treats teachers with mutual respect and shares the responsiblity for the success of the project. In order for teacher leaders to have success, their administrators need to acknowledge and approve of the efforts and the accomplishments of the ILs. Teachers can become effective teacher leaders if surrounded by the right conditions. "Allowing teachers to expand their roles beyond the classroom may be a way to improve teacher quality and to attract and retain qualified people in education." 30

King, Rita M. Leadership through partnership: the California Mentor Teacher Program. Alexandria, Va. :Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1989 1 sound cassette : 1 7/8 ips, mono. Recorded at the 44th Conference of the ASCD in Orlando, Florida audiotape available from ASCD: Vivian, 703-549-9110; tape is product number 61289018; can be ordered for $9.00

King, Rita M. (1986, April). *Women Mentors as Leaders.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: California established a Mentor Teacher Program as part of the educational reform package entitled Senate Bill 813 in an effort to encourage exemplary teachers to remain in teaching and to have a means to share their expertise with other teachers. This study, part of a larger research project with Far West Laboratory for Educational Research, reflects the information obtained about women mentors from one urban district in the southern part of the state. There is need to view leadership from an expanded definition

beyond the traditional male model, and to nurture approaches that can bring forth greater amounts of teacher cooperation, teamwork, quality, empathy, collaboration, and high performance standards. This paper views the first year of implementation of the California Mentor Teacher Program through the interviews of 46 women educators. (Author)

Additional Notes: The California Mentor Teacher Program was established to have model teachers work with new teachers, career teachers and teacher trainees by sharing their knowledge. The program also hoped to encourage these exemplary teachers to remain in the profession. The mentors must be tenured and also remain in the classroom. New teachers need fewer responsiblities and more time for planning. Mentors need to encourage new teachers and provide positive feedback. Mentors are succesful because they gain acceptance through responsiveness to the needs of teachers.

Effective mentors had changed relationships with principals. The women mentors experienced opportunities for leadership not available to them before. The mentors felt that being a mentor also made them better teachers by enhancing their communication skills. The mentors brought people together with resources.

New and experienced teachers found that women mentors that offered companionship gave them more confidence in their teaching. Mentors also helped teachers directly in their classrooms which created more opportunities for student success. The mentor program gave teachers a new way of looking at their careers in education.

Klein, M. Frances. (1985, Sept). The master teacher as curriculum leader. *The Elementary School Journal* , 86, 34-43.

ERIC Abstract: Attempts to answer the question of how the concept of master teacher should be best defined. Emphasis is given to the master teacher role in curriculum development. Two qualifications of curriculum leaders are identified and discussed, and implications of the identification of curriculum leaders for master teachers are explored. (RH)

Additional Notes: The master teacher concept is in the middle of a debate about what it is, a debate which will continue. Klein thinks it is an idea whose time has come. She is concerned with how the idea

can help those who have chosen teaching as a career. The role focus for this article is master teacher as curriculum leader at the school level.

Teachers get little in preservice training; inservice can help but a master teacher can close the gap between inservice training and practice in the classroom.

After being good teachers themselves and expressing an interest in expanding their professional skills (especially an interest in specific skills and enthusiasm regarding working with other teachers), they will be helped by university study, workshops, classroom visits, observations, commercial materials, and time to reflect.

Having master teachers doing curriculum work is important because it is more than a principal can do, research has documented the need, and it must occur at the school level.

Qualifications are a broad perspective on the goals of schooling and extensive abilities in curriculum development (alternative curriculum designs, teaching strategies, using resources, being able to make long and short term plans, putting goals into practice).

"The concept of master teacher provides an opportunity to reconceptualize and extend the role of the classroom teacher." 42 The idea will need support, careful planning, could have profound implications for the profession. "Ideas such as the master teacher concept that offer great potential for improved schooling must be carefully developed. A strong public school system may well depend on it." 43

Leithwood, Kenneth A. (1992, Feb). The move toward transformational leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 49, (5), 8-12.

ERIC Abstract: Administrators must abandon transactional (control-oriented) and instructional leadership modes and use facilitative power to make second-order changes in their schools. Transformational leadership provides the proper focus by helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; fostering teacher development; and helping staff solve problems more effectively. (26 references) (MLH)

Additional Notes: The term transformation leadership should be the dominant image of the 90's, replacing instructional leadership. Sarason says school reform is failing because of power relationships in schools. School restructuring is following the pattern of business, shifting from Type A (topdown) organizations to Type Z (participative decisionmaking) organizations, with power through rather than over people. Instructional leaders focus on "first-order changes"--technical, instructional school activities such as monitoring of teachers' and students' classroom work but restructuring is about Second-order changes such as improved communication, collaborative processes and so needs leadership that has a similar focus.

The old style of transactional leadership is based on an exchange of services for rewards that the leader partly controls, can be central to maintaining the organization but doesn't stimulate improvement. His three studies point to transformational leaders as being in pursuit of three goals: 1)helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative culture, 2)fostering teacher development, and 3)helping them solve problems more effectively. In developing and maintaining a collaborative culture, bureaucratic changes were used to support cultural changes (e.g., scheduling time for collaboration), norms were communicated, power shared. To foster teacher development, Leithwood says teachers' motivation is increased when they internalize a set of goals for professional growth, a process enhanced by participating in a school mission they are committed to. To help people solve problems, transformational school leaders help staff work smarter, not harder.

Research evidence in support of transformation leadership in education settings is limited but uniformly positive

Lichtenstein, Gary et al. *Teacher Empowerment and Professional Knowledge.* CPRE Research Report Series RR-020 Consortium for Policy Research in Education, New Brunswick, NJ. SP Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC

ERIC Abstract: A view of teacher empowerment based on professional knowledge is presented in this paper. A new definition of "professional know ledge" for teachers is also proposed, based on teachers' knowledge of professional community, educational policy, and subject area. After a year of field study and a literature review of structural, formal, and institution-based efforts to empower

teachers it was found that decentralization or enhanced teacher authority did not necessarily lead to teacher empowerment. Research on knowledge-based reforms was then conducted, based on interviews with 30 high school mathematics teachers involved in the Los Angeles and San Francisco projects of the Urban Mathematics Collaborative (UMC). Findings indicate that teachers believe they are empowered in principle and practice and have positive attitudes about teaching. A conclusion is that teachers' development of professionally relevant know ledge is necessary for genuine teacher empowerment. (12 references) (LMI)

Additional Notes: The concept of empowerment refers to teachers acquiring more control over decisions that affect their workplace. Practitioners believed that this concept of teacher empowerment would lead to an improved quality of teaching. Increasing teachers' responsibilities does not enhance their sense of power unless they can handle these new responsibilities. In order to take on these responsibilities teachers must be knowledgeable of these new roles.

Teacher empowerment is achieved when they have knowledge of their profession. This knowledge falls under three caterogies: knowledge of their professional community, knowledge of education policy, and knowledge of subject area. Teachers feel empowered when they can share experiences with other teachers. Support from colleagues and recognizing their own competence can increase self confidence. Knowledge of what other teachers are doing pointed out ideas within their own practices. The knowledge of eduation policy enables teachers to make decisions based on curriculum issues inside and outside of the classroom. Teachers who know a subject well, will be more helpful to their students. Teachers know different ways of communicating the information and different ways students may be able to use this information. Teachers become empowered because they now feel more effective in the classroom. The knowledge of the subject matter also results in collegiality. Teachers share knowledge of a subject area amongst each other, and may also acquire new knowledge related to that subject matter. Broader knowledge of a subject area can affect decisions in the classroom. Teachers may begin to adopt new ways of teaching subjects.

Teachers feel empowered when they are more effective in the classroom and in policy. In order to for there to be teacher

empowerment, teachers should be allowed to be active in making decisions about policy which is relevant to them.

Lieberman, Ann (Ed.). (1990). Schools as collaborative cultures: Creating the future now. Bristol: Falmer Press

ERIC Abstract: This collection of 12 essays examines the school's need to establish a collaborative environment as a precondition for its own development. The following chapters explore the necessary shift in schools from a bureaucratic to a professional mode: (1) "Recanting Bureaucracy: A Democratic Structure for Leadership in Schools" (D. L. Clarke and J. M. Meloy); (2) "Teacher Professionalism: Why and How" (L. Darling-Hammond); and (3) "What Are Schools of Education For?" (S. B. Sarason). The following chapters examine critical issues of fundamental change: (4) "A Fundamental Puzzle of School Reform" (L. Cuban); (5) "Education Reform Strategies: Will They Increase Teacher Commitment?" (S. J. Rosenholz); (6) "Teaching Incentives: Constraint and Variety" (G. Sykes); and (7) "Healing Our Schools: Restoring the Heart" (T. E. Deal). The following chapters investigate the changing roles, relationships, and culture of the school: (8) "The Social Realities of Teaching" (A. Liebermann and L. Miller); (9) "Teachers as Colleagues" (J. W. Little); (10) "Leadership for Curriculum Improvement: The School Administrator's Role" (G. A. Griffin); (11) "Staff Development and School Change" (M. W . McLaughlin and D. D. Marsh); and (12) "Schools for the Twenty-first Century: The Conditions for Invention" (P. C. Schlechty). Two figures are included. Each chapter includes a list of references. (FMW)

Lieberman, Ann. (1987, Spring). Teacher leadership. *Teachers College Record*, 88, (3), 400-05.

ERIC Abstract: This article responds to the twin calls for teacher leadership and collaboration between schools and universities made by the Holmes Group and the Carnegie Forum. (Author/MT)

TCR Abstract: Teachers College Record Abstract: Exploring the relationship between research universities and schools, Lieberman asks us to think seriously about the real meaning of collaboration and of how real, not just credentialed, teacher leaders can be developed. She points out many things we have already found out about the characteristics and learning experiences that good teacher leaders have and how detached university faculties have been from the schools.

Additional Notes: The Holmes Group and Carnegie Reports call for both teacher leadership and collaboration and the two are linked. "Working with school people is not the same as prescribing for them. " Using teacher leadership as described in these reports, the author looks at what knowledge and understanding might inform the gap between university and school.

Teacher leadership is the result of a great deal of experience, only a small part of which is formal academic learning. The reports assume that teacher leaders will be set apart somehow. She posits credentials or advanced degrees with the label teacher leadership in them, with field-oriented dissertations or action research; the universities could convince states they were contributing to the professionalization of teachers with new programs, create partnerships with school districts, offer workshops and conferences, but none of this is much different from what we have had in the past.

Teacher leadership roles are already being created in schools but many research university people are not involved. The New York City Teacher Center Consortium with Myrna Cooper and the UFT has a model 8 years old which considers these factors: selection (using nominations, a screening process, and legitimacy with peers); the need for experience (considering strong backgrounds, advanced degrees, strong human qualities, experiences outside of teaching for broader perspective); a well-developed ideological stance toward working in a non judgmental fashion (taking teachers where they are, modeling professionalism with their own continuous inquiry); strong interpersonal skills (can build trust and support, legitimate their positions, "weave their way around a culture"), and use context as a variable (recognizing the need to be involved in a specific context, as university researchers are often not). Other teacher leadership models being practiced are developed in school contexts, are dominated by a helping stance, are part of building a more professional climate, are accepted by teachers, can be institutionalized, can be done collaboratively by professional organizations and state and local authorities. Where teacher leadership has failed, the reforms have ignored real teacher involvement and generated competition rather than collaboration.

It is rare for research universities to encourage professors to describe professional practice or reward them for it. In the past

Hollis Caswell set up an institute for school experimentation at Teachers College that is a model of successful collaboration between schools and universities. For efforts like this to be legitimate, we need leadership at the top to encourage, reward, and model a different kind of participation in public schools as well as teacher educators willing to participate in and learn from a culture different from their own. The author fears the Holmes report will lead universities to put in new teacher credentialing programs or to do business as usual but this can be an opportunity to reshape teacher education.

Lieberman, Ann & McLaughlin, M. W. (1992, May). Networks for educational change: Powerful and problematic. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 73, (9), 673-77.

ERIC Abstract: Whether organized around subject matter, teaching methods, school improvement, or restructuring efforts, successful networks share common features, such as focus, variety, and opportunities for discourse and leadership. Networks can also present nagging problems concerned with quality, application, stability, over extension, ownership, expanding objectives, leadership, evaluation, and goal-setting. Networks can also shift policy making focus. (16 references) (MLH)

Additional Notes: Teachers avoid conventional staff development because itfails to meet their needs but voluntarily participate in networks because they help them grow professionally. Various networks are briefly described, including the Foxfire Teacher Outreach Network, the Puget Sound Educational Consortium, Urban Math Collaboratives, the National Writing Project.

The power of networks includes the following. The clear focus of networks helps those who joint establish an identity. Networks provide a variety of activities, giving teachers important flexibility and self-determination (very different from having an outside set of experts offer a set of workshops on their topics). Networks blend personal and professional, social and work-related activities, to establish a climate of support. Networks create discourse communities that respect their views and voices. Networks give teachers "firsthand experience of the constructivist notion of teaching and learning." (47) Networks expand the pool of teachers who can provide leadership; they can return to their schools with new ideas, practices, a willingness to experiment, to teach other teachers or become active in local, state, or national reform.

Creating a new structure like networks means new norms of colleagueship, a broadened view of leadership, enhanced perspective on student needs, opportunities to be learners and partners, an authentic personal voice.

The problems of networks include quality: how can the quality of new innovations be monitored, reflected on, benefit from feedback? "Without procedures for ongoing outside review, networks can fall prey to the myopia of familiar practices and the misdirection of unchallenged assumptions." (48). Another problem is application: networks can draw teachers' attention away from their schools to the network itself, especially if the workplace is difficult. Another problem is stability: funding of networks is usually seeding, not maintenance but changes demand long-term stability. Another problem is over extension: a network can grow beyond its time, money, energy; they have to learn to manage success. Another problem is ownership: networks' independence from official structures fosters teachers' ownership and professional safety but teachers and funding organizations can struggle over who sets the goals and priorities. Another problem is expanding objectives: most networks have specific goals (e.g., changing the writing process) but their staffs and teachers also need to learn about the process of change to deal with unavoidable elements of organizational change. Another problem is leadership: "Network failures are linking failures." (51) Also, we know little about what makes a good network leader. Another problem is evaluation: funders or government bodies that insist on traditional measures for teacher and classroom success (e. g. tests) limit networks' power. A final problem is goals: funders, policy makers must resist the urge to use the networks to further purposes other than those identified by members.

There are several policy implications. Teachers are eager to grow professionally and they can make significant changes. The context in which change is pursued is "everything" (52); instead of targeting individuals' skills, networks build communities of learners, so policy makers should approach not from the standpoint of management and control but from the norms and agreements of communal relations. Looking at occupations rather than at organizations means concentrating on the meaning of teaching for those who do it, not organizational concerns like administration, reporting, incentives, delivery, and outcomes. "Policy can lever more effectively if it takes an indirect approach—concentrating on the

environments available to support and stimulate teachers' professional growth—than if it directly tackles concerns about teachers' knowledge base and classroom competencies." (53)

Lieberman, Ann & Miller, Lynne. (1984). *Teachers, their world, and their work—Implications for school improvement.* Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

ERIC Abstract: In the first chapter of this book, which deals with the world and work of teachers, themes are explored that capture the essential "dailiness" of working in schools, and a general description is given of what it is like to be a teacher. The cyclical rhythms an d patterns of the school year are considered, as are the formal and informal guidelines used by teachers in their interactions with students and school personnel. The social realities of teaching in the elementary school are delineated in the second chapter. Case studies of two schools are presented to illuminate differences which may exist in school climates. Chapter 3 points out the sharp difference between teaching at the elementary and secondary school. Major themes in discussing secondary level teaching include living in a bureaucracy, working with adolescents, and the faculty culture. The problems inherent in relationships between teachers and principals and the responsibilities of leadership are discussed in the fourth chapter. In the fifth chapter, descriptions of school improvement efforts are analyzed. The final chapter explores fundamental realities and needs to be considered in improving inservice teacher education, and the roles of teachers and administrators in these endeavors. (JD)

Lieberman, Ann & Miller, Lynne. (1990, Fall). Teacher development in professional practice schools. *Teachers College Record,* 92, (1), New York: Teachers College Press.

ERIC Abstract: Focuses on professional practice schools as contexts for the continuing professional development of experienced inservice teachers. A framework for developing a culture of inquiry in a school is provided, appropriate professional growth activities are considered, and problems and dilemmas associated with teacher development in professional practice schools are discussed. (IAH)

Additional Notes: Professional practice schools have three agendas: to reinvent themselves for the purpose of promoting best educational practices, to contribute to inducting new teachers, to

provide for the continuing development of experienced teachers. This paper focuses on the third, teacher development. The authors think it is important to define clearly what teacher development means to distinguish it from competing notions of deficit model inservice training that reinforce the status quo of a paternalistic system of schooling as usual, despite evidence that the model doesn't work. The term staff development connotes a shift to thinking of schools as organizations but it often assumed its purpose was to assist teachers in either adopting an externally designed program, making adaptations to a technological innovation, or implementing a state or federal mandate. The authors define teacher development as "continuous inquiry into practice," where teachers continually rethink own values and practices, what happens in PPSs. "Teacher development is not only the renewal of teaching, but it is also the renewal of schools. Teacher development is, in effect, culture building."

Five norms are essential for constituting such a culture: norms of colleagueship, openness, and trust; opportunities and time for disciplined inquiry; teacher learning of content in context; reconstruction of leadership roles; networks, collaborations, and coalitions. Brief descriptions of each follow.

Colleagueship, openness, and trust: Little found that collegial norms were most responsible for the successful implementation of new programs; Rosenholtz's learning enriched schools had collaborative goals and that norms of colleagueship were among the necessary conditions for teachers to reconceptualize their work

Opportunities and time for disciplined inquiry PPSs must provide conditions for teachers to develop. Teacher research takes time, commitment, risk, support.

Teacher learning of content and context: In content-in-context learning, the learner is the center of the educational enterprise (Elkind); recent cognition research supports it. Foxfire is an example of it.

Reconstruction of Leadership Roles: in PPS's "the whole concept of leadership is in the process of being reconstructed" (9) The authors quote Sergiovanni that leaders have power to accomplish rather than power over people; Derrington identified the transitions

administrators have to make to change from technical to cultural leadership; Wasley noted difficulties teachers have with new roles. "...one of the tasks a professional practice school faces is to make the transition from bureaucratic and hierarchical modes of leadership to alternative forms." (11)

Networks, Collaborations, Coalitions: outside support counters the "funny farm syndrome," schools in transition feeling different and threatening. Examples include the Puget Sound Educational Consortium, the Southern Maine Partnership as members of the National Network for Educational Renewal, the Coalition of Essential Schools, the Mastery in Learning Project and informal ones.

Change takes time. These are a few examples of teacher development activities that seem to combine the five elements and hold promise for PPSs: teacher study groups, curriculum writing, teacher research projects, peer observation, case conferences, program evaluation and documentation, trying out new practices, teacher resource centers, participation in outside events and organizations. None is an add-on, each contributes to developing a new school culture and teacher development as continuous inquiry.

Lieberman, Ann, Saxl, Ellen R. & Miles, Matthew B. (1988) Teacher leadership: ideology and practice. In A. Lieberman, (Ed.), *Building a Professional Culture in Schools*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Notes: We are learning what teacher leadership is by doing it; we need descriptions of this work as it evolves. The authors studied 17 teachers with leadership roles over two years to look at their capabilities to activate strategies for change.

Entry characteristics of the teacher leaders in the study included broad teaching experience, work in curriculum development, academic pursuits, administrative or organizational skills, and personal skills. On-the-job training included learning about the school culture (often new learning to them), learning new skills and abilities (including skills to create acceptance, to avoid getting co-opted, to deal with isolation and infantilism) and learning about self.

Building colleagueship included building new skills in trust and rapport, organizational diagnosis, dealing with process (including conflict mediation and confrontation), using resources, managing the

work (organizational and managerial skills, moving from thought to action), and building skill and confidence in others (individual diagnosis of needs as well as the health of the school).

The authors describe two teacher leaders in the context of their schools and situations, one in a high school and the other in an elementary school and teacher center. Insights they draw from the portraits include the fact that teacher leaders are learners (especially learning to work with adults on their own terms and to deal with what Little calls high gain/high strain); teacher leaders are also professional models.

Little, J. W. (1988.) Assessing the prospects for teacher leadership. In A. Lieberman, (Ed.), *Building a professional culture in schools.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Notes: The author introduces her discussion of the prospects for teacher leadership by outlining three sets of professional problems which form the context for discussions about teacher leadership:

Conditions of Membership in the Occupation (including recruitment, preservice admission and exit standards, licensure/certification, testing and assessment tied to a knowledge base in teaching, teacher evaluation); Structure of the Teaching Career (including the structure of opportunity for advancement/promotion, the structure of opportunity for expanded responsibility, and access to meaningful (professional) reference groups in and out of school); Conditions of Productivity in Schools (including a structure of leadership and decisionmaking that includes well-qualified teachers, administrators' roles in support of teachers and teaching, collective responsibility for student achievement, a reward structure that promotes teacher-to-teacher collaboration and accountability). After an overview of all three, the author emphasizes the third arena in this chapter, conditions of productivity.

There are three arguments behind school workplace reform: teacher leadership will be ephemeral if not soon linked to benefits in the classroom; proposed changes promise to produce more successful solutions to problems of student learning at the same time they build teachers' commitments to teaching; steps to professionalizing organizations can be acted on. Based primarily on four separate studies conducted over the last several years the author looks at

some of the conditions required to promote professional relations that benefit students.

The author proposes that advocates of teacher leadership have underestimated the magnitude of change they are attempting. Schools now organized to influence teaching are rare. Teachers who lead leave their mark on teaching but those who are invited to may fail; teachers contemplating mutual examination of teaching have good reason to think it will be difficult, and perhaps not worth the trouble. Little reviews Delaney's six areas in which teacher leaders might demonstrate leadership, in a balance of changes in programs and people: lead teachers continue to teach and improve their own teaching, lead well-informed peer reviews of school practice, participate in school-level decisionmaking, lead inservice education, assist individual teachers, participate in performance evaluation of teachers.

Little proposes that one can gauge the prospects for teacher leadership in a school according to two stances. The first is whether or not teachers are prepared to develop a close knowledge of each others' teaching based on observation and discussion. This involves willingness to make teaching public, through structured observation and reciprocal work with colleagues in classrooms, helped with precedents set by administrators. The second is whether or not teachers will accept acts of initiative by master teachers. The general pattern now is often hesitant approval, based in precedents set by department heads.

The author draws four conclusions about the prospects for teacher leadership. First, teacher leadership prospects are "High Gain, High Strain." Gains come from teachers' classroom orientation, practical knowledge, and sheer numbers; strain comes from inherited traditions of egalitarianism, isolation, and teaching seen as just a matter of style. Strains are compounded when teacher leaders are given little preparation and support, when principals are cut out of the action, when the pace of implementation is fast. Second is the need to look at the prospects for teacher leadership through principal's eyes; a review of studies leads her to think we have not yet tapped administrators' tolerance for teacher initiative. Third is public interest: teacher leadership needs the support of local tax dollars which requires public understanding of the new work, including selection of teacher leaders. Five conditions are prominent that will either advance or erode teacher leadership. They are (1) the

work teacher leaders do, which must be important and difficult; (2) the symbolic role, which must be not hit men for bad teachers but exemplars of professional relationships, (3) the nature of public shared agreements for getting started, not agreements jeopardized by protection of separate interests; (4) incentives and rewards, especially incentives to work collaboratively; and (5) local policy support, especially policies regarding principals.

Schools and districts face a two-part challenge, to introduce capable people to a new role and to introduce a new role to an institution and an occupation.

Little, J. W. and McLaughlin, M. W. (1991, June, Draft). *Urban Math Collaboratives: As Teachers Tell It.* Stanford: Center for Research on the Context of Secondary School Teaching.

Notes: The authors interviewed 20 high school mathematics teachers who have been active members of Urban Math Collaboratives in Los Angeles and San Francisco sponsored by the Ford Foundation to consider the place of a collaborative in the professional life of experienced secondary teachers and its contribution to secondary school reform.

The teachers had ties to the network outside of school but were in other respects ordinary teachers in ordinary situations. National associations of content specialists and local teacher networks are "virtually absent" from studies of teachers' professional development. Part I of this report looks at the professionals working within the Collaborative.

The four themes in the Urban Math Collaboratives policy statement were important to the teachers interviewed: expertise in math and math education; knowing new developments in the field; helping students make connections between math and other fields; advancing their practice through association with colleagues.

The interviewed teachers had enthusiasm for math, saw themselves as math specialists but more importantly as math educators; the Collaborative helped them with ways to keep the subject engaging for themselves and, through help with teaching, for their students. They saw themselves as on the cutting edge, assuming a good math teacher actively seeks information about new developments;

working together helped develop a common language and undercut intolerance or exclusivity, helped them examine their assumptions. "...nearly all of these teachers have come to adopt a non-traditional conception of mathematics content and pedagogy." (8) Teachers wrestled with tensions between playing it safe and innovation which may result in genuine understanding of math reasoning but doesn't fit traditional schedules, curricula, or tests, but most are critical of traditional math instruction. Compared to typical training programs, the activity of a collegial network is ambiguous and the process of determining best practice is "muddier."

Belying the stereotype of subject matter specialists, the teachers were concerned for students and student learning, especially through personalization (involvement with students in a range of activities, with an ethic of care), making math accessible to all students (low-achieving students are often concerns), and a constructivist view of student learning (which seemed to contribute to success with low-achieving students).

Three themes emerge from the idea of colleagueship: opportunity for exchange is satisfying, standards for colleagueship are rigorous , and mutual support is accompanied by mutual obligation. Opportunity includes time, common purpose, norms for debate. The collaborative members could cite opportunities taken in conferences, travel to other cities, institutes. They considered good colleagues those who aspires to depth of knowledge; help others; open up classroom practice to scrutiny; share successes and failures, are committed to children; demonstrate courage and persistence, are generous in tolerating differences and in offering ideas, materials, and time; are involved with one another and in the long-term agenda to improve math education. Teachers find an extraordinary level of mutual support in the Collaboratives; they also encounter mutual "pushing" to bring to the group and to take leadership roles

Part of the Urban Math Collaborative's agenda is to expand the leadership roles of teachers that do not require abandoning the classroom connection. "Most of these teachers have in common a firm commitment to remain in classroom teaching, yet none would be satisfied with an isolated life behind closed classroom doors." (27) The Collaboratives have tried to wide the circle of well-prepared teacher-leaders. These teachers considered leading by innovation in the classroom, leading by teaching other teachers, leading by contributions to reform in math education

Part II of this report looks at the connection between teachers' networks and formal school organization. The teachers were in a network as members of a profession and employees of a school.

The teachers discussed the different yet potentially compatible bases for professional work, the network and the department. Some departments were collegial and some were hostile; PLUS math collaborative worked with departments, reinforcing each other so sometimes teacher network involvement is a "happy extension" of department work and sometimes it is a refuge, suggesting a network can extend the department community or compensate for its inadequate support.

The collaborative in San Francisco is housed in the district's staff development offices, has well-received activities but not a "distinct strategy of collaboration and teacher leadership." (34) The PLUS program in LA is independent of the district and teachers express more ownership, thought the problem solving character and level of trust would not be possible within the district structure. Networks are messier than bureaucracies. "At issue here are tensions between the inter-institutional connections needed to achieve lasting effect, and the institutional control and bureaucratization that appears to accompany district sponsorship."(34)

The authors propose these provisional propositions regarding the contributions of a subject area collaborative: the network offers a capacity for the technical and personal support of teachers that the district and university do not; the network promotes a high rate of innovation and experimentation in mathematics; the network preserves close connections to the classroom; the network offers a broader conception of professional knowledge, professional community, and professional leadership, all of which form an optimistic picture.

Little, J.W. (1981). *School Success and Staff Development in Urban Desegregated Schools.* Boulder: Center For Action Research. Paper was revised and published under the title *The Power of Organizational Setting: School Norms and Staff Development.* Washington, D. C.: NIE.

ERIC Abstract: Observations of and interviews with teachers

and administrators in three elementary and three secondary schools provided support for the hypothesis that the social organization of the school as a workplace affects the fruitfulness of staff development efforts and the effectiveness of the school as a whole. This report reviews the relevant literature on organizational theory and role theory,applies these theories to the school setting, and presents the findings of the research based on these theoretical approaches. The first of two sets of findings centers on the character of the school as a workplace in which teachers' role expectations inhibit or encourage collegiality and openness to innovation. The character of the school is explored in terms of the kinds of work practices followed; the degree, location, frequency, practicality, relevance, reciprocity, and inclusivity of staff interactions; the status, knowledge levels, and role competence of the individual staff members; and the general and specific influence of the principal. The second set of findings focuses on characteristics of influential staff development efforts, notably the degrees of collaboration, co collective participation, focus, and time involved. The relationship between school effectiveness and each characteristic considered in both sets of findings is explored as each characteristic is discussed. (PGD)

Additional Notes: Schools which are looked at as organizations can control change. New ideas are also influenced by the interaction among colleagues. In schools where school collegiality is strong, staff development is favored. Teachers who feel they have nothing to learn from their fellow colleagues have little desire to participate in staff development. Schools where teachers feel that there is always room for improvement in their teaching knowledge and practices, will be greatly influenced by staff development. Teachers who talk to each other about teaching practices, evaluate each other and give constructive criticism, achieve school improvement. Teachers and administrators should plan and prepare teaching materials together, and staff becomes instructors for others in order to have successful schools. The more restricted the amount of interactions between teachers and administrators, the more likely the schools will be resistant to staff development and these schools will be less likely to meet with success.

Interactions between teachers which occur frequently are felt to be a habit. Teachers who feel these interactions are worthwhile and

contribute to their teaching practices will encourage collegiality. Interactions between colleagues should also be reciprocal in order to be effective. Evaluations of one colleague by another should focus on the evaluation of one's practices not one's competence. All of the staff in schools should be included when changes are being considered.

In schools which are very collegial, the principal is looked upon to initiate and be an active participant in collegial work. Shared work or new ideas which are initiated from any one, including beginning teachers, also influence success in schools. Principals who clearly state their expectations of collegial work will have a greater chance of achieving collegiality. Modeled behavior among principals is more effective in getting the teachers to live up to their expectations of collegiality. Principals' influence over school success depend upon their range of approaches for collegiality and change.

In order to be useful staff development should be a collaboration between school and staff development personnel to share information about teaching. Collegial practices are strengthened when staff participates in staff development collectively. Staff development encourages interactions among teachers and other staff members to accomplish a specific goal. This goal is based on specific ideas or shared work. Organizational change like collegiality and experimentation among teachers can occur through staff development.

Little, Judith Warren. (1984, Fall). Seductive Images and Organizational Realities in Professional Development. *Teachers College Record*; 86 (1), 84-102.

ERIC Abstract: The conditions necessary to sustain collegial professional relationships and the problems with these relationships are explored in this article. Strategies important for successful staff development are described. (DF)

Additional Notes: Recent studies describe collaboration, partnership, collegiality, and interactive development as effective ways to do staff development but upon close examination, the conditions to introduce new ideas takes organization and skill often underestimated in reports. A close looks reveals "the strains that accompany (and perhaps yield) the triumphs." (84) The author compares two similar staff development programs in several pilot

schools, only one of which changed teacher behavior. Some of the differences included : critical mass, faculty participating in training and implementation rather than just training, and collective commitment

There are limits to what teachers can do in isolation. Learning a new approach is a struggle and may make a teacher look incompetent to peers as she flounders if they see her work only casually or do not understand it. New practices are time-consuming and collective participation eases the burden; some effective practices must be done on a large scale across a whole building to be effective.

In the successful staff development program, three provisions for collaboration helped create a group: 1) a four-stage negotiation with pilot schools which included first, a presentation of the program to administrators, asking them to declare interest; second, another meeting for those interested with further information; third, principal and 75% of the faculty agreeing to participate; fourth, entire faculties meeting to hear a description. This negotiation rests on shared agreements about the promise of a new program, the nature of roles, and the adequacy of the implementation description.

In the successful program, in professional relationships, teachers found the relationships reciprocal, with their views valued, they were invited to act as knowledgeable contributors so implementation became moving ideas on paper to specific applications in the classroom. Second, time for shared work was built into the schedule. Third, decisions of focus and scale grew out of teacher's analyses, and finally, criteria for observation grew out of shared discussion. The more successful program used time better, with weekly sessions over two years, with frequency of involvement and long duration. Both programs considered the principal crucial but direct involvement in the project (in training, as resource person), shifted him from gatekeeper to change agent.
Researchers concluded that staff development is most influential where it (1) ensures collaboration adequate to produce shared understanding, investment, thoughtful development, fair, rigorous tests of selected ideas 2) requires collective participation in training and implementation 3)is focused on crucial problems of curriculum and instruction 4)is conducted often enough and long enough to ensure progressive gains, 5) is congruent with and contributes to professional norms of collegiality and experimentation.

Staffing: the successful program used a "disproportionate concentration of staff resources" (93) but was federally funded, so there was no dollar basis for continued support or expansion. Exclusivity: schools were invited and the five pilot schools were ready for success. Principals: the successful program relied on the principals but it called for a kind of leadership that many principals are not prepared to give. The successful program promoted collaborative work among teachers.

The problem is one of scale: a small group of staff developers will not add measurable to teacher knowledge in a district; the lessons from this study are guidelines for professional work in day to day teaching.

Little, J. W. & Bird, T. (1986, Mar). How schools organize the teaching occupation. In *The Elementary School Journal*, 86, (4), Chicago: University of Chicago.

ERIC Abstract: Finds fault with federal and local attempts to improve and influence the teaching profession. Points out that federal and professional standards are fruitless or counterproductive in the absence of local organizations that can apply them in the classroom. (DR)

Additional Notes: The public, the state, researchers, schools of education, boards, administrators, teachers organizations all try to influence teaching. We have been students and have had much experience in schools but it can make us think teachers have little expertise that demands respect. Some research supports what we think about teaching, that research is a growing resource but not a recipe for teaching. Mostly, novice teachers "are left to become teachers on their own." Teacher evaluations often are designed to correct incompetence rather than foster competence. Teachers conclude that education classes gave them little of value, being watched is a bureaucratic ritual, and the reward for experience is being left alone, which promotes isolation, which is reinforced when teachers' organizations support norms of independence and privacy. Isolation gives room for individual creativity but deprives the teacher of stimulation and close support and recognition. "Bureaucratic procedures are no substitute for collegial contact." "Superb teachers leave their marks on all of us. They leave no marks

on teaching." Teaching isn't organized to hold teachers accountable for their work or support them in mastering it.

There are two possible paths, weak and strong. The weak path is to "decry the situation, name the perpetrators, pass some laws demanding improvement, and move on." The strong path is to ask how to organize teaching so that teachers command respect. The starting place is to ask how schools organize teaching.

To do that, look at three kinds of norms: the norms of civility (ways in which persons deal humanely and fairly with each other), of instruction, (ways teachers deal with students), and of improvement (ways the staff goes about improving its own or the school's performance). Exploring these norms is essential for a policy in teaching.

One way to account for the norms of a school is to look at the demands made on it by states, school districts, community, but schools have latitude in responding.

Schools require external support in all three norms: norms of civility requires a civil neighborhood, parents who teach their children to respect others, district policies; for norms of instruction, learning depends on what students do, on what other people do (do they monitor homework or get kids to school on time); for norms of improvement, teachers' success depends on things like time, materials, equipment, goals, external resources.

Teachers and students and principal shape the ways of the school through their initiative, negotiation, and repetition.

Schools with strong norms of collegiality and experimentation "are reflected most clearly in four main practices of improvement: (1) specific staff discussion of teaching practices, (2) observing and being observed at work, (3) working together on plans and materials, and (4)learning from and with each other. These norms of collegiality and experimentation are more likely to form when teachers and principals (a) describe and call for cooperative experimentation, (b)model that behavior themselves, (c)provide material support for those who experiment and collaborate, (d)reward those who join in the venture (and ignore and punish those who do not), and (e) defend colleagues when their initiatives are threatened.

The norms of collegiality and experimentation are promoted when teachers and principals join in training or other focused interaction designed (a) to forge common goals for improving practice, (b)to promote agreements about desired practice ,(c)to develop language with which to describe and analyze practice, and (d) to help the participants achieve, in each others' eyes, the virtues they need to observe each other, teach each other, and work closely together in other ways." (499) Wise combinations of demands on schools and support for schools and initiate by their staffs could change schools considerably.

Teaching is complex; improvement requires a teacher and observer to observe, record, analyze, assess, draw conclusions and someone who does "coaching." Coaches must assert ad display enough knowledge and skill to help and the teacher must be willing to defer. Coaching is to result in changes in teaching, not just companionship and intellectual stimulation; also the coach's performance should improve. The exchange has a practical requirement of reciprocity and "a derived moral requirement;" such obligations apply in every exchange that influences teaching. In most places teachers don't have reciprocity. As a result of isolation, teachers' lore does not accumulate and teachers don't get recognized

Little and Bird's proposals are an attempt to combine external demands, external support, and initiatives by teachers and principals. Their proposals include the following

Time, resources, tenacity:
The most important resource is time with colleagues (504)
continuity—affected by staff turnover, new initiatives
tenacity—select changes carefully and stick with them

Leadership for improvement:
Principals are not captains of a ship but of persons with particular responsibilities for evolving organizations

Supervision and evaluation:
Supervision should provide minimum competence in teaching and genuine assistance in mastering craft, but this often takes a back seat to other principals' tasks. Teachers should ask for better evaluations, not erect barriers. Principals should be prepared to help teachers in classrooms and give them recognition.

Leadership by teachers
Teachers who are improving each year need support. The system should draw on teachers but "norms of autonomy and nominal equality thwart teachers' recognition and use of the leaders in their ranks." (509)

"Collectively, teachers could decide that recognizing and using their differences in knowledge, skill, and performance will be a reasonable trade for greater influence on their schools and on their occupation." Administrators could decide that shared leadership will be repaid. (509)

The practical task is designing positions that require both teaching and leadership. In the beginning, they suggest redefining familiar positions like department head, grade level team leader, etc. , filling those positions by procedures in which teachers nominate, assess, influence selection. Leaders should be provided with reduced teaching loads, training, resources, supervision.

In promoting leadership, there is little experience to go on, so it is sometimes hard to imagine; there are few models, there is history to overcome. A linked problem: it is hard to be generous in leadership and accountability when resources and salaries are tight yet the public is distrustful of giving more money without seeing change, progress.

Experienced teachers and principals socialize new teachers. Schools of education could base programs in selected schools and use practical research so student teachers could use the whole school, may teachers' skills and the climate to learn.

We need to clarify school and district support for new teachers, hold teachers accountable and recognize them for their performance throughout their careers.

Teaching need not be a dead-end job.
"Organizing the teaching occupation is first and foremost a task of reorganizing schools."

Little, J. W. & Long, C. (1985). *Portraits of school-based collegial teams.* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

not published under this title; not in ERIC; not at Far West

Little, J. W. & McLaughlin, M. W. (1993). *Teachers' work: individuals, colleagues, and contexts.* New York: Teachers College.

Little, J. W., Long, C., & Guillcey-Amado, J. (1986, Jan). *Expanding professional collaboration in schools: Can districts organize leadership by teachers?* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Far West Abstract: School-based Instructional Support Teams serve as a vehicle for examining how schools are organized to influence teaching, and more specifically, how schools are organized to permit and promote leadership in teaching by teachers.

This report is one of two reports produced as a result of a cooperative project of the Far West Laboratory and the Vallejo (California) Public Schools. The first report ("Case Studies in Emerging Leadership by Teachers: The School-Level Instructional Support Team") describes insights gained from a close look at formal Instructional Support Teams in five schools, three elementary and two secondary. This second report focuses on the role of the district in promoting and supporting school-based teamwork and teacher leadership.

Together, the two reports from this study add pieces to a larger picture. An appendix provides an overview of the larger picture; it places this report in the context of related studies on teacher collegiality, instructional leadership by administrators and teachers, and the professional work environment of school.

Additional Notes: In Vallejo, school teams were seen as one part of a long-term district program in staff development which grew out of school improvement research and district research, and specifically part of a five-year plan to improve instruction and student achievement. The district expected teams to be different at each site but have in common the responsibilities of providing training in classroom management and effective instruction, providing coaching to all teachers, and implementing site-plan curriculum development objectives.

To look at district influences on the professional environment, the Lab chose a district with a reputation for stable, intense, long-term school-level teacher collaboration. The report

describes three ways the district promoted teacher collaboration and leadership. Other studies had identified district support as a predictor of teachers' success in new roles.

The superintendent's actions promoted school-level teams in six ways: initiating the idea (persons high in an organization have "certain rights of initiative"), making consistent public statements ("teams are this district's main vehicle for school improvement"), praise for teams' accomplishments, having a presence at team sessions, holding expectations for principals, modeling teamwork at the superintendent's level.

The "policy of teaming" was expressed by staffing patterns at the district and school level, through the Instructional Support Team, a liaison with the Professional Development Center, a liaison with the superintendent.

District-sponsored staff development supported teams in two ways—funding a "support team cycle" of training for teams and offering general staff development to teachers that is consistent in content and method with that offered to teams (and is sometimes led by team members).

The district provided material support in the form of budget equal to 16 days release time, release time (three two-day support team training cycles), materials, information.

The district provided policy support in these ways: principal selection and evaluation that reinforced teaming; staff development to support teams; teacher placement (teachers move every seven years, fostering cooperation because "you may be working in my school next year"); personnel evaluation (teams help teachers develop and achieve their own goals but don't evaluate teachers); program and curriculum development (teams take the lead in implementing the five-year plan); recognition and reward (through requests to train through the PDC and because team experience is a prerequisite for career advancement).

Support Team Cycle training provides time, group involvement, a design that combines instruction with team planning, internal evaluation, and a school site liaison.

District choices and challenges include dealing with demands on principals and the scale of team training. The district's policy has limited principals' options at the building level; principals are being asked to act in a way many have not been trained for. The scale of team training includes the following issues—training new team members, conveying their group identity to teachers, working within a great time crunch, dealing with exclusivity.

Looking back one year after the study, authors say the collaborative research had positive results: the superintendent used the study publicly and for policy, the district used it to plan and revise some staff development, some principals' meetings were devoted to teaming issues, teams highlighted by the study benefited from visibility and tried to communicate their priorities better to the rest of the staff to deal with "creeping exclusivity." (26) continuing choices and challenges are politics (is a division on the school board regarding teaming), progress vs. pressure (especially regarding expectations about how fast they can change and how hard they can work), demands on principals (principals are critical to success yet have many demands and need training and/or support), differences between elementary and secondary schools (is a better fit to date with elementary schools), and time (cited by teams first as a cost of the innovation).

Little, J. W. & Bird, T. (1984). *Report on a pilot study of school-level collegial teaming.* San Francisco, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

ERIC Abstract: Joint action among teachers appears to depend on the teachers' perceptions of their interdependence and the presence of opportunities for joint action. An urban middle school had been organized into teams on several levels with strong support from the principal. Three situations that altered these operating procedures provided evidence that teachers are more likely to cooperate to solve their problems when they feel their problems are shared and when barriers to common action are reduced. The three situations involved an influx of student teachers, turnover among members of established teams, and the appointment of a new school principal less committed to the team approach. The study suggested that three kinds of joint action can be identified: coordinated activity, conducted individually but similarly; accommodating activity, involving individual adjustments in response to others' needs; and cooperative activity, the mutual, face-to-face interaction of

teachers to achieve a joint goal. This report concludes by suggesting that a larger study focusing on the conditions and factors affecting joint action rather than on visible evidence of teaming seems called for. (PG D)

Additional Notes: The study was done in a school where an interdisciplinary curriculum created a reason for teachers to work together, the principal promoted collegial teaming, and the staff share a commitment to teacher training. Three events in the school affecting collegial teaming showed that teachers are dependent on one another when it is imposed upon them. In order for teachers to take action together interdependence must be felt in some way. Teacners must also be given the opportunity to work together. Coordination, accommodation, and cooperation establish conditions for joint action among teachers.

Teachers may feel more effective when they agree on issues which they depend on each other. Teachers may also feel less independent and that their practices are being scrutinized by others. If joint action is successful and teachers feel comfortable in depending on one another there may be more teaming in the future.

Little, J. W., Galagaran, P., & O'Neal, R. (1984, Nov). *Professional Development Roles and Relationships: Principles and Skills of 'Advising.'* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Notes: As part of a larger set of professional development studies, the authors looked at the advising skills of teachers coaching or mentoring other teachers by analyzing seven out of 14 videotaped conferences. The conferences themselves were unusual events in the teachers' lives which teachers said contributed to their professional development. The advisors were teachers on special assignment at the central office, a formal role; advisors emphasized collegial relations with teachers (equal relations) and expressed ambivalence about having special status but teachers respected their expertise Advisors had to win respect and told elaborate stories of difficulties getting started in schools They rarely gave direct advice, though teachers said they were open to it; the authors posit that advisors are more confident in group instruction/workshop settings, that they are establishing a common knowledge base for conversation by sticking to general information about instruction, that they are reluctant to introduce their own ideas for fear they will undermine an individual's

own analyses, and their sense of professional etiquette among teachers (asserting one's opinion on curriculum and instruction)is professional bad manners.

Advisors can be seen in three ways: as colleagues who model, as specialist in certain areas, as senior colleague with rights consistent with title. The first perspective is the one most consistent with the advisers own descriptions—their language says facilitating teachers is more respectful than leading them. "At issue here is whether the advisor role...can be a leadership role in the improvement of teaching." . (20) If advisors have no special standing they will use a language of facilitation; if advisors are accepted with special or expert status, we can expect more language of initiative.

> Using examples of how advisor-teacher pairs interact and how the advisor acts, the authors generate six principles of advising. Under the heading of Talk about Teaching, they list a common language, focus, and hard evidence. A common language gave specificity, started with teacher practice, raised questions about the basic perspective of describing teaching through emphasizing skills, went beyond surface understanding, and focused on instruction, though advisors often had to introduce the common language to teachers. Focus on something with a tested or plausible relationship to learning that was complex enough to take two people to work on and changeable. Focus narrowed the ground, kept the discussion on track, kept new advisors out of the swamp of trying to deal with too much. Hard evidence was appreciated by teachers, especially the detail of videotape, and aided strong talk.
>
> Under the heading Trust among Colleagues, they list interaction, predictability, and reciprocity. Interaction includes equal participation in getting the floor, the importance of the first two minutes in establishing orientation, a place to work, an invitation to participate, a sense of checking out the boundaries for the conversation, a pattern of equal participation through a combination of questions, probes and silences orchestrated by the advisor. For predictability, the authors noted conferences based on agreements about topics and procedures made before the conference, a review of the agreements, an invitation to the teachers to go first Under reciprocity (we're in this

together), authors noted showing a commitment to new learning, a sharing of the obligations sand risks, and giving due credit, all of which usually stood up in the face of disagreement and conflict.

Authors' conclusions: the principles and skills of advising are central to any improvement initiative including joint work on teaching. The advisors conceive their role as that of responsible colleague. The authors have overdrawn the distinction between facilitator and leader to provoke thought but in practice the division is less clear.

Little, J. W. (1987). Teachers as colleagues. In V. Richardson-Koehler, (Ed.), *Educator's Handbook: A Research Perspective.* New York: Longman, 491-518.

Notes: Traditionally, teachers have worked alone o preparing lessons, and solving problems in their classrooms. When teachers work together for an extended period of time there is a positive effect on their students. Some teachers find that working together results in unproductive meetings because they are not accustomed to planning curriculum together and coming to an agreement. Some people feel that teacher collaboration, allows teachers too much time out of the classroom.

Studies have shown that teachers work together for difficult tasks such as implementation of a new curriculum or to redesign an existing curriculum. Group work enables teachers to try changes in the curriculum which they would not have attempted on their own. Schools in which groups that are well-organized and have a specific task are more productive than when individuals work alone. Peer observation and coaching increases the influence of teachers on one another.

There is generally little interaction between new teachers and experienced teachers. Novice teachers who are assisted by veteran teachers would have more success in the classroom and continue to teach beyond their first one or two years. New teachers need professional support for the classroom along with social support to adapt to their new surroundings. Experienced teachers do not intefere with the practices of new teachers and the new teachers only ask for help if they feel their abilities will not be questioned.

While collegial teams are usually very productive and give an alternative to the isolation that teachers usually find themselves in, new teachers may find themselves in a very demanding situation. Schools which promote collegiality benefit by coordinating the work of teachers across classrooms, organizing to try out new ideas in the classrooms, and retain beginning teachers by offering guidance. Classroom observation among teachers is being used as professional development.

Collegial work among teachers is rare and where it is implemented, collegiality is found to be fragile. Teachers should feel dependent in some ways which affect their work and have the opportunity to work together in order for collegial work to be stable. There are six dimensions of support outlined in the literature: 1) symbolic endorsements and rewards that place value on cooperative work and make the sources of interdependence clear: 2) school-level organization of staff assignments and leadership, 3) latitude for influence on crucial matters of curriculum and instruction, 4) time, 5) training and assistance, and 6) material support. Teachers who work together as colleagues provide schools with the organization for improvement.

Little, J. W. (1985, Nov). Teachers as teacher advisors: the delicacy of collegial leadership. *Educational Leadership* , 43, (3), 34-6.

ERIC Abstract: Teachers who served as advisers to help other teachers improve their classroom techniques in the Marin County (California) Office of Education's Teacher Advisor Project found six principles affecting successful, non threatening relationships: sharing common language, focusing on key concerns, gathering hard evidence, interacting fully, acting predictably, and exhibiting reciprocal respect. (PGD)

Additional Notes: Focusing on classroom performance enables teachers to learn from each other but puts self-esteem and professional respect on the line. Far West Laboratory and the Marin County Teacher Advisor Project analyzed videotapes of teacher advisors working with teachers. The conferences were extraordinary and rare events. Advisors had no formal power over teachers' present or futures; they influenced teachers through informal action. Getting started was difficult, occurred in a "strange dance" of negotiation; teachers were recruited case-by-case. From the videotapes, Little posits six principles of advising, for pairs and advisors.

Having a common language: skillful pairs agreed a common language was important and deliberately used it; skillful advisors took the lead in conveying the importance of the shared language and teaching it, using it appropriately.

Focus: skillful pairs focused on one or two key questions; skillful advisors took the lead establishing a focus tying in research, their own experience, and observation notes, making talk concrete and precise.

Hard Evidence: skillful pairs used a record classroom interaction as a basis for discussion; skillful advisors conveyed the importance of an adequate record and collected thorough evidence to make discussion rigorous.

Interaction: skillful pairs had lively interaction, learned from each other; skillful advisors fostered interaction through physical setting, introductions, their manner.

Predictability: skillful pairs built trust by relying on known predictable topics, criteria, and methods; skillful advisors model clarity about conference criteria, doing what they expect teachers to do with aims and methods.

Reciprocity: skillful pairs build trust; skillful advisors provide a model of reciprocity.

Advisors rarely gave advice, were hesitant to be considered experts because they thought they didn't know enough about individual situations, didn't want to undermine teachers' thinking, thought they were using professional etiquette.

The advisor can be seen as peer, staff developer, or senior colleague;they saw themselves the first way and saw more assertiveness as heavy-handed, insensitive.

The issue is how advisors or mentors or master teachers can help improve teaching. If the facilitator role prevails, they assist teachers when asked; if they get and accept special status, they would be able to propose more and offer to teach what they already know.

Livingston, Carol, Ed. (1992). *Teachers as Leaders: Evolving Roles.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association.

ERIC Abstract: The phenomenon of teacher leadership in changing schools is explored in this book. Following a foreword by Robert McClure and an introduction by Carol Livingston, part 1 provides an in depth examination of teacher leadership as it exists in practice and of teachers' aspirations. The five chapters are based on a series of independent case studies conducted in the United States and Canada. All the case studies share a focus on the nature and contribution of teacher leadership in school change. They include: "Working Together: Teacher Leadership and Collaboration," by Patricia A Wasley; "Empowerment through Leadership: In the Teachers' Voice," by Carolyn Fay; "Becoming a Change Facilitator: The First-Year Experience of Five Teacher Leaders," by Ann Kilcher; "Teacher Leadership in a Renewing School," by Lynne Miller; and "Leading, Learning, and Leaving," by Susan Walters with Cynthia Guthro. In part 2, two advocates for teacher collaboration and leadership in learning-centered schools reflect on the previous chapters. Integrating theory and practice concerns, they outline current knowledge on teacher leadership and speculate on its future. Their contributions include "Teacher Leadership: What Are We Learning?" by Ann Lieberman; and "A Vision of Teacher Leadership," by Eliot Wigginton. References accompany each chapter. (LMI)

Additional Notes: In the context of the changing discussion of teacher leadership, the editor introduces this collection of essays by looking at teacher leadership in four metaphors for schooling. In the dominant factory metaphor, teacher leaders become supervisors. If school is a complex organism, teachers are autonomous professionals but the bounds and focus may not be clear. If schools are organizations for knowledge work, the image is corporate and the role of teacher leader is unclear. Schools as learning places and centers of inquiry opens options for new roles.

Chapter 1 "Working Together: Teacher Leadership and Collaboration, Patricia Wasley

In the recent discussion of teacher leadership, the author notes that many of the teacher leader roles being discussed are already present in schools, but often hierarchical in nature, although teachers have indicated they are more interested in finding ways to collaborate

with colleagues to facilitate student learning even though we aren't sure what collaboration means.

With three teacher leaders, the author described what they did as teacher leaders, especially how they collaborated with their colleagues. Wasley describes one as entrepreneurial, one as a principal's model, and one as reflective. She classifies their collaboration as mentoring (which assumes acceptance of hierarchy and credibility), dividing labor (to accomplish a task efficiently), and partnering (mutually beneficial and risky effort). Using French and Raven, Wasley looks at the three leaders different uses of five sources of power—reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert power.

Collaboration became leadership when the collaboration affected others' behaviors. Mentoring and partnering had a greater potential to change others' behaviors than did division of labor. Existing leadership roles provide opportunities for collaboration that are not always designed to change instructional practice. The ability to change practice was influenced by the source of the power. "We came to agree that for teacher leadership positions to work, the source of power and authority had to be granted to the leaders by their colleagues—those they wished to lead."(53)

Creating more powerful positions for teachers includes staying in the classroom, avoiding management functions, focusing on what influences student learning, having a legitimate source of power, collaborating via mentoring or partnering, providing different kinds of incentives.

Chapter 2 "Empowerment Through Leadership: In the Teachers' Voice" Carolyn Fay

There has been a new look at the potential for teachers to be leaders and to contribute to reshaping schools. "Genuine teacher empowerment may depend on practitioners themselves determining the conditions that foster their empowerment by developing new beliefs about their ability to lead colleagues in school change." (58) Teachers do not see leadership hierarchically; traditional bureaucratic structures can no longer be governance models. Teachers could transform relationships. Despite different opinions,

but is difficult now to estimate how much and what kind of involvement teachers want.

To include teachers in the discussion of their own empowerment, this study elicited viewpoints from teacher leaders in three schools that are part of the NEA Mastery in Learning Project. Fay describes the teacher leadership experiences at three sites, then draws together common threads. Effective teacher leaders found a fit between teaching and leading; being in the classroom gave credibility. "Successful teacher leaders, by definition, remain teachers with high regard for their colleagues and the unique perspective they share by virtue of their work with students." (85) They say differences between administrative and teacher leadership, differences between control and self-determination. Finding, structuring, and using time is a complex problem. "In one sense, the entire structure of school has emerged from ideas of time and work." (86)

These teacher leaders' experiences confirm the literature on teacher empowerment and school restructuring. They need opportunities for deep dialogue. The study of teacher leadership should be increased and include teachers. Professional development programs should be designed to reflect these needs.

Chapter 3, "Becoming a Change Facilitator: The First-Year Experience of Five Teacher Leaders," Ann Kilcher

Change facilitators were trained to support school teams as they learned a problem solving approach to school improvement. Sara Nickerson began the project thinking a change facilitator was a "background catalyst"(93) wanting to see classroom changes but concerned about time. Sara was assigned to a school considered ready for change, began proactively with meetings, worked through feelings of frustration, not being needed, of conflict over some ideas, of isolation, of being spread too thin but also of learning from training and experience, of using training in her own teaching. Sara decides facilitating is more support than leading, is like inquiry teaching in leading people to discover things for themselves. All five change facilitators increased their understanding of the change process, learned more about working with people, clarified their roles, learned about themselves. They employed multiple strategies, including learning alone (reflection, reading, organizing), learning with others (discussions and meetings, observation, training).

Orientations each learned the first year included learning versus leading, insider and outsider perspectives, having opportunities dictate roles and functions. Key concerns were time, role clarification, involvement and control, credibility, and conflict. The five facilitators had styles ranging from passive to confrontational. Most successful were those who were facilitative, assertive, nondirective but not passive. The context of school factors (opportunities, fit that either supported or hindered), district factors (support structure and training for the project), individual people (researcher, team members, family members), and study participation (keeping journals, learning from the researcher) influenced the facilitators' work.

From the study, the author offers these guidelines to districts using facilitators. In selecting facilitators, have a clear role description, select people who can see themselves as co-learners in a process, people with adaptability and flexibility who are facilitative, assertive, and indirect in working with people. Facilitator training is crucial, needs to be intensive, comprehensive (they need a vast knowledge base), on-going, have enough time, and including coaching. In assigning facilitators, attend to the personal mix and individual school culture; consider internal-external facilitator teams.

Change facilitator is one alternative role for teacher leadership.

Chapter 4, "Teacher Leadership in a Renewing School," Lynne Miller

In the middle of a three-year grant, the faculty at Narragnasett School in southern Maine is transforming its school into a center of inquiry. Faculty created five teacher-leaders positions with role descriptions written by teachers. In addition, teachers developed their own ideas of how to inquire and reflect. "Leadership for school change did not come from those in formally designated roles as might be expected; it emerged from the ranks of classroom teachers, seeking to improve their practice" (120), which has become a school norm. At the end of the second year faculty are experimenting with a new role, teacher-scholar—a person who will pursue research at the school during a year' teaching sabbatical.

In accounting for the development of teacher leadership at the school, the author names the ethos nurtured by the superintendent, prior opportunities to "think differently," such as courses through a

near-by university and a school atmosphere that supported sharing ideas, and unique talents of the teachers.

Teachers made a connection between teacher leadership and improved teaching, which was rooted in self-esteem, reflected in offering students opportunities for decision-making like those the teachers were experiencing, and included engaging students in reflection on the learning process.

Chapter 5, "Leading, Learning, and Leaving," Susan Walters with Cynthia Guthro

Two teachers in a junior high school part of the NEA's Mastery in Learning Project describe their experiences as school leaders. Their first roles were traditional formal ones of subject area coordinator and association leader. Although they had different styles and experiences, they learned to collaborate and to deal with suspicious peers; one learned to take roles outside her classroom while the other learned to step aside to let others grow. As they became leaders, they became better teachers--one by experimenting, one by seeking coaching. Common themes from their stories included shifting from isolation to connection, from being givers of information to facilitators of student learning. Two images for their new roles as teacher-leaders are voice (expressing diverse ideas and beliefs) and leaving (old habits and ways of being). The common thread is in their stories is growth.

Chapter 6, "Teacher Leadership: What Are We Learning? Ann Lieberman

Teacher participation may be the most critical component in school restructuring. Only a short time ago teacher leadership was a new idea which made teachers and principals nervous. Today school restructuring is joined with a move to professionalize teaching, to change school culture.

Teacher leadership roles must be part of an overall vision and set of values that accept and expect teachers to participate in leadership. Teacher leaders need a structure for their work but it can vary in different schools and contexts. Time becomes the most valuable resource. Teacher leadership roles are varied. They help promote a continuous process of evaluation that seeks to find out how to do things better. Leadership is a set of functions that can be

done by a variety of people. There are skills and abilities that can be identified and learned, the process of change can be studied, conflict can be made productive. We are using a new language with new terms, one of hope and connection.

In restructuring the learning environment, teachers are being recognized, leading them to acknowledge student possibilities. We do not know yet what a collaborative culture looks like or how to build one but teacher leaders will contribute and we have a healthy start.

Chapter 7,"A Vision of Teacher Leadership, E. Wigginton

For Wigginton an issue of teacher leadership is outside versus inside leadership. Leadership coming from people outside the building is not necessarily negative, but outsiders have issues of credibility, motive, and invitation that teachers want dealt with up front. When the leaders are people inside the same building, they should know the school's unique culture. Wigginton cannot speak of this kind of leadership firsthand because he has never seen it in his building; the invitation has never been extended. Essays like those in this book make imagining it possible and we start to think of variations on how it might work for us. He imagines teachers working as peers, developing and sharing specialties, requesting collaborations with people they trust outside the school, and reconnecting with the ideas of scholars they studied as students. Since teachers aren't comfortable with leaders, he thinks of them acting as scouts, going out with kids to find useful information, processing it, and bringing it home. When he imagines starting at the beginning, getting the principal to issue an invitation, it makes the journey seem long.

Lynch, Mervin, & Strodl, Peter. (1991, Feb). *Teacher leadership: Preliminary development of a questionnaire.* Paper presented at the Conference of the Eastern Educational Research Association, Boston.

ERIC Abstract: Recent movements to empower teachers often assume that in order for teachers to assume leadership roles in schools, the teachers must leave the classroom to become school committee members or to work in adjacent classrooms with new teachers. However, teaching inherently involves leading, and leadership can be validated in terms of the teacher's role. Preparing teachers to be leaders involves translating leadership skills into pedagogical applications. A conceptual schema for leadership skills, containing

eight items in each of nine categories, was developed for a questionnaire designed to identify teacher leadership competencies. The schema of categories included consideration, decision making, group process, structure, problem solving, emergent leadership, conflict resolution, and communications. A group (N=56) of professional educators (graduate students in teacher education courses, students in educational administration courses, and professors of education) participated in a Q-sort of the items identified. These data were analyzed in terms of factor structure, reliability of items, and differences among participating groups. The findings revealed six factors associated with teacher roles that reflect leadership skills: emergent leadership, teacher authority, empowerment of others, student relationships, task participation, and instructional openness. These factors indicate those items with good potential for formation into a questionnaire. (IAH)

Additional Notes: The concept of teacher leadership gives teachers the opportunity to focus on career development. Teachers can grow in their own profession. Teachers are expected to become empowered by becoming more a part of the decision making process within their schools.

New teachers have been influenced by traditional teaching in their schools. They are discouraged from doing anything which may not follow the unwritten rules. Teachers need to expand their roles in order to be more effective in the classroom.

Teacher leaders will be more successful in the classroom when dealing with conflict, stress management, and change. They will now have more skills which relate to human relations. Teacher roles should be defined by their skills of relating to people. Teachers who are viewed as leaders now have the chance to interact with people other than students which enhances their roles in the classroom.

Maeroff, G. I. (1988). The empowerment of teachers: Overcoming the crisis of confidence. New York: Teachers College Press.

ERIC Abstract: In the first chapter of this book, which deals with the world and work of teachers, themes are explored that capture the essential "dailiness" of working in schools, and a general description is given of what it is like to be a teacher. The cyclical rhythms an d patterns of the school year are considered, as are the formal and informal guidelines used by teachers in their

interactions with students and school personnel. The social realities of teaching in the elementary school are delineated in the second chapter. Case studies of two schools are presented to illuminate differences which may exist in school climates. Chapter 3 points out the sharp difference between teaching at the elementary and secondary school. Major themes in discussing secondary level teaching include living in a bureaucracy, working with adolescents, and the faculty culture. The problems inherent in relationships between teachers and principals and the responsibilities of leadership are discussed in the fourth chapter. In the fifth chapter, descriptions of school improvement efforts are analyzed. The final chapter explores fundamental realities and needs to be considered in improving inservice teacher education, and the roles of teachers and administrators in these endeavors. (JD)

Manthei, Judith. (1992, April). *The mentor teacher as leader: The motives, characteristics and needs of seventy-three experienced teachers who seek a new leadership role.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: The data presented in this paper were collected from 73 early childhood, elementary, and middle school teachers who were among the first teachers to prepare for formal mentor teacher leadership roles in Massachusetts. These teachers were enrolled in a graduate mentor teacher preparation course at Wheelock College (Massachusetts). The Inventory is divided into two major sections. Section 1 includes five categories of information that reflect the topics addressed in the mentor preparation course Personal Motivation for Becoming a Mentor; Personal Traits and Qualities; Areas of Knowledge and Skill as a Classroom Teacher, Areas of Knowledge and Skill as a Mentor Teacher; and Knowledge of Organizational Issues. Section 2 of the inventory helps teachers formulate individual action plans to address the areas of need indicated in Section 1. The findings indicate that teachers are motivated to prepare for new formal mentor teacher roles primarily because they seek an avenue for their own professional growth and stimulation; helping novice teachers is a secondary motivating factor. In addition, this research indicates that most of the aspiring mentor teachers want, but after several years of successful teaching do not possess, the knowledge and skills to create and/or assume new teacher leadership roles. Implications of the study are discussed and a new master's degree which includes a Teacher as

Leader program is described briefly. The appendixes contain the inventories used for data collection. (IAH)

Additional Notes: After years of teaching, teachers do not have the skills to take on the responsibility of leadership. Without these skills teachers do not become leaders who are active in decision making or restructuring schools. Teachers seek professional growth through new mentor leadership roles. Mentor teacher programs can promote collegiality; in mentoring, teachers observe each other teaching and discuss the process.

In Massachusetts, mentor teachers play an important role in the preparation of new teachers. New teachers must work with a mentor teacher while teaching for a year, and earn a clinical master's degree before receiving a permanent teaching certificate. Experienced teachers participated in a mentor teacher course. Teachers chose to take the course primarily for professional growth. Teachers also wanted to be responsible for changing teacher preparation.

Schools that these experienced teachers are from do not provide information for teachers to work together in a non-judgmental manner. If mentor teachers are to be a support for novice teachers, skills and knowledge which help working with colleagues have to be learned. Teachers need to be helped to develop a voice in order to participate in making decisions for change. Both the mentor teachers and the new teachers need support for effective change in schools.

Marshall, Catherine. (1992). *The cultural chasm between administrator and teacher cultures : a micropolitical puzzle.* Cambridge: Harvard Graduate School of Education, National Center for Educational Leadership.

Notes: From 1985 there is evidence of a business model in school management, exacerbated by the creation of expert school managers in the 1920s. The movement from teaching to administration can be traumatic; teachers and administrators see the world differently. The paper assumes cultural conflicts are played out between teachers and administrators and that micropolitical analysis is an effective tool to describe the conflicts. The author briefly reviews the literature on cultures of administrators and teachers and well as micropolitical analysis and describes the study's methods,

including interviewing and the use of Ethnograph. Findings revealed that contrary to expectations beginning administrators gave little evidence of conflicts with teachers, said the move to administration was a natural one, asserted that they maintained ties with instruction. The author proposes a "new era" hypothesis, that evidence of cooperation, shared values, and fluid movement is a sign of accepted restructuring. She also proposes a methodological hypothesis, that method flaws may have resulted in "fluke findings." A third hypothesis, the micropolical hypothesis, posits that the administrators were performing according to socially desirable standards of the 90s, pushing conflicts aside to inspire teachers to keep cooperating.

Maxcy, Spencer J. *Educational leadership: A critical pragmatic perspective.* In Henry A. Giroux and Paulo Freire, (Eds.), Critical Studies in Education and Culture Series.

ERIC Abstract: An original reformulation of the meaning, potential, and practice of educational leadership, informed by notions of self and social empowerment, is provided. This book relies on a variety of theories derived from philosophic schools such as hermeneutics, critical theory, deconstructionism, and pragmatism. Arguments are presented in the following 10 chapters: (1) "Introduction: The Quest for Leadership"; (2)"Research on Leadership in Education"; (3)"Administrative Leadership, Democracy, and the Qualities of Philosophic Mind"; (4) "Educational Leadership and Policy";(5) "Leadership and the Education of Young Children"; (6)"Moral Imagination and School Leadership"; (7)"Postmodernity and the Preparation of Educational Leaders for the Future"; (8) "Empowerment and Educational Leadership"; (9) "The Artist-Leader and the Problem of Design"; and (10) "Conclusions." The possibilities of leadership are expanded by addressing its relationship to authority and ethics, politics and power, and ideology and culture. The arguments set forth in this book build to the conclusion that what is needed in contemporary debates about school reform is the critically imaginative vision that sees leadership as a community effort to redesign schools for the maximization of the interests of the community. An index is appended. (Contains 305 references.) (MLF)

McClure, Robert M. (1988, Nov). The evolution of shared leadership. *Educational Leadership,* 46, (3), 60-62.

ERIC Abstract: The Mastery in Learning Project is helping teachers and administrators overcome the isolation of their traditional roles to become professional collaborators. (Author/TE)

Additional Notes: The Mastery in Learning Project is NEA's five-year school based improvement effort to explore collegiality. Data at the beginning revealed principals and teachers relied on textbook manuals, directives, mandates from outside the school, accepted the status quo, doubted changes, considered themselves conservative, felt responsible to protect the school from more poor change efforts, did not describe themselves as risk takers, saw their schools as closed organizations, accepted "the technologies that control schooling" like behavioral objectives, textbooks, standardized tests.

As the staff in 26 schools worked on different projects, they have moved through nine stages in the development of collegiality: testing (to discover the strength and sincerity of the change), exhilaration, commitment, dispiritedness (when they discover no one from outside will provide solutions), regeneration (a critical stage where only 20-50% remain active and begin again), seeking small success (with immediate visible results), using research (through the MIL network and other places), experimentation (pilot efforts), and finally comprehensiveness (from fragmented efforts to whole school reform).

"In many of the Mastery in Learning schools, faculty now view leadership as a shared responsibility that is based on competence as much as on role." (62) The faculty see themselves as a force to affect the quality of their school and see their roles as collegial.

McDonald, J. P. (1988). The emergence of the teacher's voice: Implications for the new reform. *Teachers College Record*, 89, 471-486.

Notes: The first phase of school reform, from *A Nation at Risk*, implicitly took teachers to be "dumb instruments of school policy" but the second phase of school reform, from the Carnegie report, takes them to be reform's "chief agents." (471) The author offers three explanations: the failure of top-down reforms, the possibility of a teacher shortage, and his answer, that the new policy interest in the teacher's voice reflects neo-populist trends in other areas of social policy. Voice is complex, may refer to "the right and power to have a say in policy" and also to the "*content* of what might be said

and implicitly to what those who are to be empowered to speak *know*." (472) The author thinks users are not mindful that voice implies knowledge as well as power. The Carnegie report's fiction is that it is a product of the technocratic imagination, won't work because it is too rational, and what is missing is the message in the idea of teachers' voice.

The conceptual roots of the construct of teachers' voice lie in three fields of education scholarship: the emergent or interpretative tradition in research, contextual description rather than process-product in evaluation, and cultural rather than rational and political perspectives on innovation.

Spurred by a teacher who said the Carnegie report overlooked the "mystical" aspects of teaching, the author makes four assertions to draw more attention and research to the idea of teachers' voice: 1)Teaching is rooted in a teacher's moral purpose and interests. 2) Teaching is built on pervasive and morally legitimate conflict between student and teacher involving struggles over freedom and constraints. 3)Teaching and learning are not directly linked; teaching can only create conditions for learning, so it requires "wilder images" (483) than technocratic ones. 4)The wildness explains why teachers use activities and images of routines rather than goals, which they stick to even when they do not work. Our culture does not like to hear that our teachers' work is rooted in a personal moral vision or that teachers are in conflict with children, which makes it difficult to hear teachers' voices. "In a culture that prizes certainty, predictability, and self-critical clearheadedness, it is difficult to say or to hear that we must learn to tolerate their contraries in the very institution we depend on to reproduce culture." (483)

Meadows, B. J. (1990, Mar). The rewards and risks of shared leadership. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 71, (7), 545-48.

ERIC Abstract: Recounts the difficulties of establishing a shared decision-making model at an elementary school used to more authoritarian governance. In another school more familiar with participative methods, this principal de-emphasized administrative perfectionism and maintained team management by acknowledging the value of controlled conflict and modeling risk-taking behaviors. Includes five references.(MLH)

Additional Notes: The author frequently hears discussions of the rewards but seldom the risks connected with shared decisionmaking and wants to tell both sides of the story. She enjoys the process and thinks decisions put in practice are more successful when those implementing them have participated in shaping them and are committed.

If decisions are successful, there is not problem, but if they are not, the leader is held accountable, not the group. When she implements shared decision making she asks several questions: what is the principal's responsibility, what is the teacher's responsibility, how is a collaborative process developed, and what kind of negotiation process works in reaching an agreement on these matters?

As a principal, she has had two different experiences with shared decisionmaking. At Valley View school, decisions were made by those who got the principal's ear, and different faculty had different views about who should be involved in what decisions, and how they should be made, which she found uncomfortable and unproductive. She and the staff developed a shared decisionmaking process. Some angry teachers challenged her, lobbying in the community against her; she realized that even though the old way had not worked well, they were familiar and comfortable with it and didn't want it changed. At the beginning of her second year, She proposed a model for school decisionmaking, opened it for revision through collaboration with teachers, then implemented it. By the end of the second year, most were comfortable with shared decisionmaking, had developed skills to make it work, and the few who didn't like it didn't participate. At Oak Grove school, teachers had already been doing shared decisionmaking when she arrived, which included debate and testing of ideas to arrive at the truth. She wondered if the model would maintain itself or need additional support. She found new teachers didn't understand it so they formalized the process in writing to make it clear and accessible. They also needed assistance with individual and group skills to keep it working (e.g., learning that managed conflict can be necessary and helpful).The principal's role was to establish and maintain leadership. She de-emphasized perfectionism, modeled the importance of taking risks and assuming responsibility for outcomes, including admitting mistakes publicly and not saving face. Managed conflict can be positive.

At Valley View she moved rapidly and frightened some teachers. At Oak Grove she moved slowly and built trust. In both places she found it important to set things down in writing, to clarify, to start discussions. The benefits of shared decisionmaking are worth the risk.

Mertens, Sally, & Yarger, Sam J. (1988, Jan-Feb). Teaching as a profession: Leadership, empowerment, and involvement. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39, (1), 32-37.

ERIC Abstract: The professional and career development of teachers is central to many educational reform theories and propositions. Career ladder proposals are examined in detail. Teacher leadership and empowerment are discussed as routes to enhance status of the profession. (JL)

The Journal's Abstract: Career advancement for teachers is one of the central concerns of reformers. Attracting and retaining the best qualified teachers will require, however, the development of systems that properly reward and empower classroom teachers. Mertens and Yarger examine the issues associated with career ladder opportunities and question a selected set of assumptions that undergird professional enhancement schemes. The authors conclude with a discussion of how teacher empowerment and involvement are essential ingredients to strengthening teaching as a profession.

Additional Notes: Differentiating teaching roles is part of current efforts to professionalize teaching. Career ladders have hierarchical levels and salaries (Holmes Group three-step ladder of instructor, professional, career professional and the Carnegie four-step ladder with the top rung being lead teacher); the top rungs are for the teaching elite, about 20% of teachers. Career ladders are to provide a way for capable teachers to rise to positions of increasing responsibility, leadership, prestige. The career ladder concept is highly visible in state legislatures; implementation problems are related to defining criteria for advancement, getting funding for salary increases, lowered teacher morale when they see the process as arbitrary and capricious.

The credibility of career ladder is questioned unless roles are defined to be respected, important, expert, visible beyond the classroom, not someone else's turf, and not interfering with a teacher's primary identify in the classroom. Other implementation

problems include relating salary differences to new levels and agreement on promotion criteria.

"The concept of the career ladder, in the final analysis, is vacuous" (33), the result of a too-narrow focus on elevating teacher status.

The authors challenge seven assumptions underlying recommendations to improve the teaching profession.
(1)Teaching does not attract high caliber people: the authors contend this assumption does not hold up, that those enrolled in undergraduate programs are typical, that the issue of quality is what standard we are measuring against.

(2)Not enough people want to be teachers: the pool is shrinking but it is hard to tell from the demographics if a shortage is near; it is harder to find people to take positions with special-needs students.

(3)People are leaving teaching for other types of work: a recent Rand study says attrition is lower than in 25 years.

(4)Opportunities for salary advancement will serve as an incentive for recruitment to and a reward for staying in teaching: State legislatures have funded low salary changes connected to career ladders; in 1984 a Gallup poll reported two thirds of teachers opposing merit pay.

(5)Classroom teaching is not challenging enough Status in established professions is based on specialization, career ladders are based on a business model of moving up into supervisory roles.

(6)Classroom teaching can be reduced to a science Some school reform is reductionist (e.g., USED's What Works, career ladder checklists); the hallmark of profession is judgment, so teaching could become less, not more professional, with career ladders

(7)Differentiation of teaching emphasizes self-enhancement and career advancement. In earlier reform periods, professionalism was linked to school reform, but now it is career path

"Any plan to strengthen teaching as a profession should take the improvement of instruction and schools as its motivating force." (35) A plan for strengthening teaching must address improved instruction for students, provide formal structures to empower

teachers (meaning authority to practice teaching based on professional knowledge), have teachers involved in making decisions which affect the conduct of their professional practice, brings positive morale from competence.

Teachers exercise authority their in classrooms but the bureaucracy gives supervisory control to boards and administrators who presume standardized practices. "Despite the rhetoric about the need to professionalize teaching, in reality classroom teachers are typically accorded, especially by policymakers and administrators, about the same level of professional respect as that granted unskilled laborers." (35) Lortie sees a tension between making teacher education programs more rigorous and yet tightening bureaucratic controls on teaching practice.

In schools, teachers have to be invited to join educational decisionmaking. "Teaching will not be professionalized until teachers become more involved in making decisions that affect not only their classrooms, but also their professional lives beyond the classroom" (35)

The author offers two examples of empowerment and involvement: the teacher center and school-based management. In teacher centers, federally funded in the 1970s, teachers helped teachers focus on instructional practice; they developed the idea of responsive programs, individualized support for teachers, were judged on whether or not they addressed specific and concrete teaching problems, permitted teacher leaders to emerge. School-based management involves those closest to the action in decisions. Issues to be considered include checks and balances for actions of groups in new roles, collegiality, and peer review.

Some problems with school-based management include the following: much of the rhetoric about improving teaching is based in a sense of teachers' inferiority so school-based management may not be attractive to those who think teachers need to be monitored; unions need to rethink their primitive concept of democracy as confrontation and voting; administrators may not like power redistribution; communities' voices could mean teachers have concerned amateurs advising on professional practice.

The reform movement recommendations for improving teaching so far have been too separate from improving schools.

Miller, Janet L. *Creating Spaces and Finding Voices: Teachers Collaborating for Empowerment.* Albany: State University of New York Press, 1990.

Notes: Five classroom teachers and a university professor chronicle three years of conversations and collaborative inquiry as "concrete portrayals of the difficulties and possibilities that teachers encounter when they try to view their work and their knowledge as evolving and creating processes." The book is a detailed account of their growth from a group of fellow students with a professor to a strong support group for reflection and collaborative inquiry as they moved to challenge and make changes in their respective teaching worlds. Their primary method of working together was through monthly conversations and dialogue journals, in which they wrote responses to each other's reflections and questions, telling and retelling stories to see multiple connections-- to, in one teacher's words, "see farther and bigger."

Problems they wrestled with include isolation, the power of natural attitude, the need to go outside the supportive group's boundaries yet feelings of powerlessness outside the group. In general, they reported they were dealing with conflicts in their teaching lives that were not new but now they could no longer ignore them. They practiced taking small steps in their schools, moving "bit by bit," but with a growing sense of urgency.

Their final comment: "We now understand...that to become challengers requires the active constructions of our own worlds and our own possibilities even as we look to see and to challenge the forces and structures that prevent them. We now view our collaborative researching efforts as a point of mediation, a balancing place from which to launch our next questions, to pose our persistent interruptions, to explore new points of dissonance. We have come to realize that we, like all those who wish to become challengers, we'll have to learn "to love the questions...." (Maxine Greene, 88,) (147-148)

Mojkowski, Charles; Bamberger, Richard, Ed. *Developing Leaders for Restructuring Schools: New Habits of Mind and Heart.* A Report of the National LEADership Network Study Group on Restructuring Schools.

CS: Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC. Programs for the Improvement of Practice.

ERIC Abstract: This document examines the implications that emerging restructuring movements hold for the changing roles and training needs of administrators. Restructuring is examined as it differs from traditional approaches to school improvement and as it affects: (1) programs and services for students; (2) roles and relationships; (3) rules and regularities; and (4) accountability. Principles and characteristics that define the experience of educators in schools undergoing restructuring are discussed as well as prerequisite conditions essential for initiating the restructuring process. New conceptualization of the leadership role is explored along with characteristics tourists of leaders of restructuring schools and qualities essential for successful restructurers. This document then focuses on the e transformation of programs for leadership development and examines three program areas that call for substantial change: the syllabus, the setting, and the process. Collaborative efforts needed in creating a comprehensive system of professional development are mentioned along with realistic limits of training. Last, recommendations are offered for revising current conceptualizations of leadership and schools and for redefining roles and responsibilities for all parties engaged in educational staff development. Appendices include names and addresses of Study Group members and select seminar participants followed by a description of Study Group activities. (CLA)

Additional Notes: Restructuring the organization of schools come from in and outside the school. Administrators should initiate these changes. Along with these administrators teachers and others in the school community need to share in decision-making and new responsibilities. New forms of leadership will emerge from these shared roles. There must be leadership development to restructure schools for the improvement of education. In order for schools to change, rules which are constricting to this improvement should be removed.

The goal of restructuring is to change schools in order to better educate students so that they may lead more productive lives. Schools will have to undergo fundamental changes such as redesigning the curriculum, the learning environment, and the way other resources are used to help the teaching process. Restructuring

should change how schools operate and the method by which they improve.

There must be effective leaders in order to have success in restructuring schools. The process by which administrators should be educated and trained to become these leaders should include: the integration of learning and work, focusing on developing teams, and emphasizing on active involvement in problem-solving approaches to training. Schools need to be thought of as learning communities, where all involved can learn and grow in and through their work. All of the people who are engaged in staff development enter new relationships at the workplace which have changed roles.

The LEAD Study Group recommends that teachers be allowed to practice leadership behavior and be identified as potential administrators to restructure schools. Districts and superintendents should emphasize school development and leadership supervision rather than performance evaluation and reward professional development that contributes to the school and the individual. The Study Group also suggests that school boards should acknowledge the importance of professional growth among administrators and teachers, find the successfully restructuring schools and expand their methods to other schools. Restructuring presents itself for all members of the school's community to have opportunities of many proportions.

Monson, Michele Pahl & Monson, Robert J. (1993, October). Who creates curriculum? New roles for teachers. *Educational Leadership*, 51, (2), 19-21.

Notes: Teachers at Westwood Public Schools in Massachusetts are assuming a central role in creating curriculum with the whole language movement. They have new authority but also tensions; their roles conflict with traditional expectations. Increased pressure for accountability and national standards give teachers mixed messages about their authority and autonomy. "Until the parameters of teacher autonomy are defined, new roles for teachers cannot be realized." (19) New roles can only be defined through meaningful inquiry about curriculum and classroom practice. A new definition of autonomy needs to include both *collective* and *individual* levels of teacher involvement in decisionmaking.

The curriculum inquiry model used in Westwood encourages teachers to ask the right questions as they implement whole language. Collective decisions revolved around the first cluster of questions: the *central purpose* of the school system, and the *learning outcomes* they are striving toward. Then committees addressed the second cluster of questions, about *assessment strategies and standards* to monitor student progress, *reporting system* , and *staff development* .

Individually, teachers constructed a literacy curriculum for their own classrooms within the collective framework. Individual teacher decisions included which learning strategies, themes, concepts and materials would foster the outcomes and how to access staff development.

Like the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, this approach conceptualizes curriculum as constructivist. "With collective decision making determining the curriculum of the school system, the informed decisions of individual teachers can shape instruction in the classroom." (21)

Nihlen, Ann S. (1992, April). *Schools as centers for reflection and inquiry: Action research for teacher empowerment.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Notes: This paper provides information on an on-going case case study of how a group of teachers becoming researchers demand a voice in the administration of their school Professional development at this southwestern school began at teachers' request as university courses, including research and collaboration, and then developed a collaborative research agenda, as described by the Holmes Group. The teachers offered four points they are learning how to do research which enhanced learning in their classrooms, how to ask questions that empower them in their school, how to break down barriers of teacher isolation, and how to seek theories which will explicate and highlight their research data. they are learning. The research takes seriously the cultural politics of teaching. Their next steps is to begin to understand how some groups of students are silenced in their school.

Noel, Nancy W. (1992, Fall). Educational leadership for the twenty-first century: a question of "acting differently." *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin,* 59, 18-24 .

Notes: Educational leadership must expand to include teachers. This expansion will lead to improvement of the educational process. Teachers should become educational leaders who make important decisions, share information with administrators as well as fellow teachers, and develop leadership skills. School administrators should become coaches of leadership for teachers.

Top Quality Management can be used to succed in educational improvement. Top Quality Management incorporates the people centered style of the transformational model of leadership with the result-oriented style of the transactional model. TQM leadership redistributes the power which is mainly held by the administrators to the teachers. Teachers and administrators form collaborative teams and now are able to make further improvements. As there are exchanges in power teachers feel empowered which leads them to become more accountable for their actions. Teachers that can now be held accountable, improve the quality of their work. The change in behavior of administrators and teachers lends itself to better communication. Educational improvement depends on people who make the decisions obtaining current information. Administrators should create an environment where teachers can obtain and share information. Teachers who "own" their jobs and feel valued will positively affect the education process. A change in the educational management style leads to a system-wide improvement. As teachers become leaders, they will feel empowered to reshape their classrooms and the educational process.

O'Connor, Karen, & Boles, Katherine. (1992, April). *Assessing the Needs of Teacher Leaders in Massachusetts.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: Findings of a study that identified Massachusetts teacher leaders and their needs are presented in this paper. The research was conducted to inform the design of a teacher leadership program to be sponsored by the Massachusetts Field Center for Teaching and Learning. Methodology involved a literature review and a survey of 67 K-12 teachers identified as leaders. A total of 42 usable responses, an approximately 63 percent response rate, were involved a literature review and a survey of 67 K-12 teachers identified as leaders. A total of 42 usable responses, an approximately 63 percent response rate, were received. Findings

indicate that participation in teacher leadership promoted improvements in self-confidence, teaching, attitude toward work, and expanded teachers' knowledge and perspectives. Drawbacks included the high amount of energy and time required, which detracted from the classroom. Most teacher leaders expressed the need for communication skills, understanding of group dynamics, and knowledge of restructuring. A conclusion is that teacher leadership opportunities in schools must go hand in hand with a serious look at restructuring the school--its organization, governance, professional roles, responsibilities, and relationships. (Contains 39 references.) (LMI)

Additional Notes: In 1985 and 1987, Massachusetts passed two comprehensive legislative acts mandating school improvement, including new forms of school governance, assessment, incentives for teachers' professional development, and teacher leadership; the two acts recognized that teaching and learning require simultaneous change. The MA Field Center for Teaching and Learning (established by the governor) is a statewide teacher network, brings teachers' voices to school improvement and policy.

They have learned that teachers taking on leadership roles need support because they felt a lack of peer support in their schools and lack of preparation for new roles; the MA teaching force is also veteran, requiring staff development different from the usual deficit model.

A literature review revealed that early reports (Holmes Group, Carnegie) suggested restructuring including introducing lead teachers; the California Commission report and Devaney's "The Lead Teacher: Ways to Begin" offered scenarios for flexible teacher roles; Barth, Maeroff, Johnson agree that teaching reform is essential to school reform; Little has discussed collegiality and Barth a community of learners; Deal and Barth maintain change must come from within; Lieberman has described what some new teacher leaders do (were experienced, risktakers, with strong interpersonal skills, who had to master mediation and confrontation, organizational and administrative skills, learned about school culture, dealt with teaching's egalitarian ethic; Wasley's study of three teachers gave more in-depth examination of teacher-leaders dilemmas (other teachers don't respond to top down created positions of teacher-leader). Thus, there are many roadblocks to teacher leadership, suggesting a national need for training.

The Field Center sampled a small representative sample of teachers identified as leaders through their association with the Field Center who taught full time while assuming leadership responsibilities, took a proactive role beyond their classroom walls, were members of the Field Center's network.

The range of activities they reported was broad (curriculum decisionmaking, grade-level or department decisionmaking, staff development, union work, workshops in and outside their schools, college teaching, mentors, publishing. A few had received state or national recognition; most had received small grants to support their work; they valued the grants for validating their ideas. They reported generally good relationships in schools, best with students and most mixed with administrators. They were most satisfied with their roles in curriculum development, reasonably satisfied with professional growth opportunities, least satisfied with their roles in school decisionmaking, school procedures, time available for preparation and meetings, and feedback and evaluation. Colleagues at grade level or department had impact on them but more important were people outside the school and district; the principal was least important; several said their principal perceived them as a threat. Many received remuneration, small but making them feel valued. The effects on their teaching were overwhelmingly positive (self-confidence, improved teaching and attitude, increased knowledge, broadened outlook). The majority of teachers listed no negative results; the few who did cited time and energy that detracted from classroom work. Teachers felt their colleagues learned from them but they felt subtle resentment. A slim majority experienced no gender bias but others spoke passionately about the difficulty of being a woman assuming leadership in a male-dominated hierarchy. The most often cited roadblock was lack of time. The second was other teachers. Others were the principal's attitude and lack of money. The most valuable support was other teachers, interesting since they were also a source of difficulty; others were administration and outside institutions such as the Field Center. Their greatest sources of stress were colleagues, administration, then lack of time and other resources. They wished for a better understanding of school politics, team building, the cost in terms of time, energy, and loneliness but some said it was tremendously empowering. The chief skill they thought important for teacher leaders was understanding group dynamics. Also reported were the skills of interpersonal relations, effective sales techniques,

presentation and organizational skills. The knowledge they thought necessary was how to make effective, long-term change. Their visions of a teacher leadership program included a unanimous desire to establish such a program, a summer academy away from their schools to establish groupness followed by lengthy workshops during the year.

The authors find at present few leadership programs exist, that new roles require "a shift in authority relations in schools, " (20) and must go hand in hand with restructuring. Another challenge is to link teacher leadership with improving teaching and learning; interviewed teacher leaders said the quality of their teaching had improved.

What is known about teachers must be translated into policies and practices that work. The Field Center will work on a statewide program to support teacher growth.

Poplin, Mary S. (1992, Feb). The leader's new role: Looking to the growth of teachers. *Educational Leadership* , 49, (5), 10-11.

ERIC Abstract: Appointing administrators as instructional leaders worked to the detriment of teachers, who are now expected to transcend the old transmission teaching models and participate more actively in school management. Administrators must now become the servants of collective vision and act as editors, cheerleaders, problem solvers, resource finders, and teacher aides. Tolerating role ambiguity is essential for survival. (MLH)

Additional Notes: Administrators are being asked to operate like entrepreneurs in addition to being instructional leaders, problematic since administrators often were not great classroom educators; they often instituted direct instruction because it fit best with their administrative personalities. Today teachers are encouraged to go beyond transmission models of instruction and to participate in school management. Instructional leadership has outlived its usefulness; our profession now calls on administrators to be the servants of collective vision, editors, cheerleaders, problem solvers, resource finders, who are self-conscious about change and encourage it in others.

The instructional leader model rarely looked at growth of teachers. Scholarship tells us we must be conscious of what drives us to

become the best we can be (from two researchers, via a sense of competence, control, and connection; from learning theory, via experimentation and creating new meanings; from critical theory, via critical dialogue; from feminist theory, via connection and care).

To promote teacher growth, principals must know who teachers are. They must use self rather than external evaluations, protect teachers from problems of limited time, excessive paperwork, and the demands of higher offices. An ethic of collective study can provide for commonalties and differences in the ways people grow. Administrators of the future who can tolerate the ambiguity of the role can spark change that can only happen inside institutions where people are growing.

Prawat, Richard S. (1991, Winter). Conversations with Self and Settings: A Framework for Thinking about Teacher Empowerment. *American Education Research Journal*, 28, (4), 737-57.

ERIC Abstract: A framework is presented to characterize literature on teacher empowerment, recognizing two important dimensions: the personal or outward context of the process (conversations with self versus conversations with settings); and the focus or agenda. The framework can illuminate the dynamics of collaborative work with teachers. (SLD)

Additional Notes: The term empowerment is used in different ways. In terms of context, some stress the personal context: teachers hold conversations with themselves, including not accepting knowledge claims from experts uncritically and enhancing ability to deal with oppression. Others stress situational context: freedom as an achievement, possibilities inherent in a specific situation, which open new ways of constructing the classroom and workplace. In both contexts, there are epistemological and political agendas. For example, voice may refer to the right and power to have a say in policy but also could be about what might be said and what speakers know. In conversations with self, the epistemological question is what knowledge and value claims should I accept as valid? while the political question is what do I personally have to offer to the ongoing conversation in education? In conversations with setting, the epistemological question is What should I focus on in the teaching/learning environment? while the political question is what resources and support do I need, as a professional, to be successful in my work?

Additional discussion of conversations with self as a stance toward empowerment include the following: the conversation is internally focused, is for deciding what types of knowledge claims one ought to regard as most valid or productive, and are sorted out through reflection. Reflection for this purpose is not a new idea. The author traces reflection through Peirce, Dewey, Moshman, Rorty. Teachers should be encouraged to develop inquiry skills to examine claims; discourse is the most important mechanism for testing knowledge claims. In the political agenda, confirmation of self and dealing with unequal power relationships are pursued together. Authoring of one's own story is key since language is what we use to define ourselves, and the key to empowerment is to nurture alternative modes of discourse, which requires consciousness raising and creation of supportive environments to speak in.

A further discussion of conversations with settings includes the following. In discovery mode, a person makes sense out of situation, while in design mode, a person both shapes the problem situation and is shaped by it, but both look more outward than inward for context. Epistemologically, conversations with settings encourage teachers to look at their world through new conceptual lenses, thus creating new opportunities for development and change. What we learn doesn't solve problems and may not relate more closely to reality (quoting Rorty) but we are better off because they allow us to address new, more complex, and vexing problems. For teachers epistemologically this means regarding all theory as tentative and pursuing the shock of recognition in learning to see things in new ways.

Politically this means providing teachers with more control. When the focus for teachers is on the issue of productivity, work is seen as increasing complex and greater control is needed to let teachers meet the demands. When the focus for teachers is on the commitment to the workplace, it enables us to address symptoms of teacher malaise beyond just the complexity of task. But feminists think the workplace focus misses the point. Participation in a caring community is essential if teachers are to develop voice and sense of self. Also attention to commitment to the workplace as a hallmark of teacher empowerment hasn't helped restructuring because the workplace idea is too far removed from student learning. Prawat's alternative proposal, based on Schon's notion of conversations with settings, assumes in the political sphere the issue is resource

allocation. The key question is not What do I need to feel satisfied in my work? but what resources and support do I need as a professional to be successful in my work? The second question includes commitment to self and students, striking a balance between self and others. Being able to compete for resources is one mark of a professional, whose bargain with society is 'give us the resources and we will tackle society's problems.' Another aspect of being professional is the extent to which the profession advances the interests of the clients it serves, so it does not make sense to think it is professional development if it takes teachers away from being teachers.

Distinctions among ways to talk about empowerment are not hard and fast. Some switch among these categories while others separate them (the author discusses Gearhart, Ellsworth, Elliott, Laird, Liston and Zeichner, McDonald.)

The framework presented here can be used to characterize the changing agendas that emerge in collaborative work with teachers. Empowerment agendas evolve slowly over time, and teacher educators structuring projects for empowerment must realize that people bring different agendas to the process, that it is messy and time consuming, and that all these different strategies discussed here contribute to a teacher's ability to engage in a complex dialogue about education. It may not be wrong to stress one aspect of empowerment over others but we need to remember each is important in its own right and the different aspects work together. To understand how, we need more case studies of collaborative work with teachers.

Price, Elsa C. (1990, August). *Enhancing the Professionalization of Teachers through Effective Leadership Training*. Paper presented at the Summer Workshop of the Association of Teacher Educators. Baltimore.

ERIC Abstract: Effective leadership techniques are needed by professional teachers both in the classroom and in interactions with other professionals. Issues related to appropriate leadership styles and leadership training are discussed and include: (1) leadership styles; (2) characteristics of a leader; (3) how leadership characteristics are developed;(4) what followers want from their leaders; (5) myths about leaders; (6) the role of stress, and (7) ways to select an appropriate leadership style for a specific situation.

Selected instruments (not included) were administered concerning the following: (1) identifying what good leadership is; (2) identifying one's leadership characteristics; (3) identifying one's specific leadership situation; (4) identifying one's stress level and how this influences one's leadership abilities; (5) how to select a specific situational leadership style; and (6) improvement checklists. A review of the research yielded the following list of leadership qualities: energy, resistance to stress, self-objectivity, work standards, likeability, initiative, communication skills, honesty, perseverance, human relations skills, knowledgeability, self-confidence, and adaptability. (LL)

Additional Notes: Teachers act as leaders in the classroom and teach students leadership by example. Teachers should also use effective leadership methods when interacting with their colleagues. The role of leadership is to produce change. Teachers are leaders of the classroom and produce change in the intellect of their students. Rallis states that there are two types of leadership which can exist in schools: instructional which is the teacher, and managerial which is the principal. In order to be successful administrators must allow teachers to undertake this leadership, and teachers must be willing to take on this new responsibility and accept leadership from others on their own level.

Effective leaders should learn and use good communication skills. Leaders also need to be good delegators. They should also be able not only to accomplish a task with the help of others but also increase the skill or knowledge of those they are leading. An appropriate leadership style according to the situation should be selected to achieve desired results. Leaders should also consider the leadership style that is wanted by their followers.

Puget Sound Educational Consortium of the University of Washington. (1988). *Teacher Leadership: Commitment and Challenge*. Seattle: The Consortium.

Notes: The Puget Sound Educational Consortium is a collaborative of 14 school districts and the University of Washington. One strand of the Consortium's work is in teacher leadership, which the PSEC views as a way to respond to the national search for better schools, to keep competent teachers and attract new ones, and to address assertions that previous reform efforts have been developed too far away from classrooms. Secondary issues of the PSEC are to compile

a body of information on leadership roles as well as on structures which enhance or inhibit the roles and to develop beginning training procedures to help teachers assume leadership roles.

In 1986 and 1987, The PSEC organized three conferences on teacher leadership, on expanding leadership teams, on building collegiality, and on building a community of leaders. To narrow the focus, next the PSEC sponsored a five-day Medina-funded institute open only to teacher-leaders featuring speakers, training sessions, and open discussions. Participants grappled with a lack of common language to discuss their roles and leadership views; in the variety of viewpoints expressed there was agreement that every teacher should have the opportunity to develop leadership skills and assume leadership roles but that the education of young people should remain their highest priority. The teacher leadership philosophy statement agreed upon by all participants reads as follows:

The profession of teaching as a cornerstone of our nation has responsibility for its principles, its learnings and its aspirations.

Teachers are experts with special talents and a deep commitment for educating new generations. That commitment is best accomplished in a professional, collaborative environment in which teacher leadership sparks enthusiasm for teaching, and in turn, motivates students to realize their fullest potential. Some elements necessary to foster teacher leadership would include:

- prescribing the training standards for the teaching profession
- providing the career flexibility and time for all teachers to continue their classroom focus while demonstrating and developing their full leadership capabilities
- working in partnership with administrators and community in management and direction of schools
- increasing environment, financial and emotional support
- broadening collegial relationship throughout the entire educational community

Teacher leaders shape education and assume the responsibility for its quality to the degree that the above components are present.

Because of their difficulty in defining who and what were teacher leaders, the seminar participants conducted a survey to pinpoint characteristics of teachers seen as leaders; data is the beginning of

background information on teacher leadership in the Puget Sound area as well as on present leadership opportunities.

Demographics of the teacher leaders reflected the teaching profession as a whole. Their responsibilities included all aspects of the educational enterprise, but most often included curriculum committees at the building or district level, then work with local associations. Much less time was spent in collaborative opportunities working with other teachers in the classroom.

Characteristics of teacher leadership: teacher leaders see themselves as having influence with their peers but not as leaders. They listed traits which made them credible (trustworthiness, respect for confidentiality, history of successes), then leadership styles (persistence, organization, dependability). Traits they claimed for themselves were enthusiasm, honesty, assertiveness, willingness to be democratic, risktaking; they thought others would call them good listeners, communicators, and team players. They helped others by sharing, being open, being creative, communicating, motivating, and providing resources. Thirty-eight percent indicated receiving no compensation; of those who did, 55% got extrinsic rewards such as pay, stipends, release time, lighter teaching loads and 44% received intrinsic rewards such as satisfaction, growth, help with personnel files and recommendations as well as decisionmaking abilities and peer respect.

The most common suggestion for directions for school change included more time for collaboration. Other suggestions included access to information, time, and compensation to learn new skills; leadership skill development such as communication, group process, stress management, grant writing; new areas of knowledge, such as budget, school law, multicultural education, change process. Others requested support from district and associations regarding the development of the concept of teacher leader, to be a part of a profession in control of its own destiny, to remain centered in the classroom.

Implications for teachers include the need to celebrate diversity among colleagues, encourage risktaking and divergent thinking, recognize the need for career growth, understand that with new roles comes ambiguity and responsibility, hone process skills. Implications for administrators include teacher leaders need to be empowered through the organization structure, especially through

time and rewards. Administrators need to celebrate the diverse roles of teachers, be willing to work cooperatively, work collaboratively on schedules, respect classroom teachers' first priority in the classrooms, nurture newly emerging leaders, promote leadership though inservices on leadership skills, furnish them with authentic decisionmaking roles, create professional training centers, and support mentorship programs. Implications for the university include the need to foster leadership roles in their teacher preparation programs, and include work which promotes collegial growth and leadership skills.

Several themes will inform future work: new ways for principals and teachers to work together, learning opportunities for teachers to learn new skills, and a variety of models of school organization that include expanded roles for teachers.

Puget Sound Educational Consortium of the University of Washington. (1989). *Teacher Leadership: New Skills--New Opportunities.* Seattle: The Consortium.

Notes: Participants in the PSEC 89/90 teacher leadership strand looked at time, action research, Foxfire, and the creation of a video presentation explaining the leadership strand.

Time: Teachers identified six trends for creating time for teacher collaboration/program and curriculum development: waivers to reduce time spent with students, district early dismissals, banking time which permits early dismissal several times per year, block schedules, and buying substitutes. Other possibilities suggested to the survey takers were daily resource periods (in addition to planning periods, a period to assist individual students); professional development days, and additional staff days. The lack of time is the main roadblock to teacher empowerment. Teachers need innovative solutions to the problem of time to be fully involved in directing their profession.

Action research: With the guidance of Peter Holly, teachers conducted action research projects with their classes and students which were cognitive learning experiences, collaborative team projects, political exercises in empowerment, institutional forces for dissemination, and internal means for networking and support. Teachers projects included those on racism, drama, reading, science literacy, instructional strategies, cooperative learning, writing,

HIV/AIDS, transitions to middle school, district initiatives in action research, social skills measurement, Soviet kids-to-kids exchange, literature circles, conditions that foster action research, a model for school change, new teacher induction program, and teacher publishing.

Foxfire: After introductory sessions, 28 classes implemented Foxfire-type projects, including reflective thinking, a spiral curriculum, continuity of experience, and the social function of education. Individual projects included a reading program, a Foxfire-type high school journal, a middle school writing class, and a first-grade project.

Reitzug, Ulrich C. (1992, Jun). Self-managed leadership: An alternative school governance structure. *Urban Review* , 24, (2), 133-47.

ERIC Abstract: Explores ways in which the current governance structure of U.S. schools detracts from their ability to solve educational problems. Self-managed leadership is proposed as an alternative that does not restrict the problem-solving capabilities of teachers. Implications for teacher and principal behavior are examined. (SLD)

Urban Review Abstract: This paper explores how the current governance structure of American schools detracts from their ability to solve the educational problems that confront them The paper argues that the current structure restricts the problem-solving capabilities of teachers. Teacher empowerment is a step in the right direction, but is frequently too narrowly defined and thus falls short of maximizing the utilization of potential An alternative structure, self-managed leadership, is proposed Implications for principal and teacher roles and behavior are examined Implementation and potential issues and problems are discussed.

Additional Notes: The call for expanding the scope of leadership is not new. We need to examine the present structure of American schools which retards finding solutions to school problems The author reviews the conditions of present school life, including the bureaucratic and isolationist structure which limits opportunities for self-actualization, deprives students of opportunity to reach their full potential, holds unrealistic expectations for principals.

The emerging structure from school reform initiatives about teacher empowerment may be more "smoke" than "fire," reflecting a change in terms but not in practice. It may be a necessary step from hierarchical leadership to a more potentially useful structure. Rather than leadership residing in *individuals who influence* , critical scholars hold that leadership resides in *acts that empower* . (137) Participatory school leadership is a means to the end of evaluating taken-for-granted assumptions. Some speak for structures that create conditions for dialogue, but we are so rooted in bureaucracy that it is hard to see beyond it How do educators step outside professionally embedded assumptions about schooling and structure and non educators step outside their socially embedded assumptions about schooling?

One promising alternative from industry is self-managed groups. Teachers would be shareholders in self-managed groups responsible for a specific group of students (at middle and high school, interdisciplinary groups), with proximate physical space. The principal's role would split into manager/administrator (a staff position) and leader/facilitator to coordinate and develop groups.

The self-managed group increases the likelihood that assumptions will be questioned but does not guarantee it. Issues to consider before implementing self-managed groups include the role of current administrators, specific training for teachers, dealing with teachers who do not measure up, time, ways to take charge of things needing immediate action, dealing with immature groups, the possibility of principal elections. The implementation of self-managed groups will face obstacles, should consider moving cautiously; the hardest part is changing perceptions since teachers do what is compatible with their beliefs.

If we truly want to change schools, especially urban schools, we cannot support traditional school structure. The proposed structure is one other way. The issue is less whether or not this way will work than are we willing to consider alternatives.

Rogus, Joseph F. (1988, Jan-Feb). Teacher leader programming: theoretical underpinnings. *Journal of Teacher Education* , 39, (1), 46-52.

ERIC Abstract: Research and literature on educational change, teacher effectiveness and leadership are reviewed to provide a context for describing teacher-leader programs. Qualities of

effective leadership are discussed. Suggestions for developing and reviewing teacher leader programs are given. (JL)

JTE Abstract: Teacher-leader programs are a common graduate option for inservice teachers. In this article Rogus identifies a rationale for teacher-leader programs, explicates selected findings from the teacher-leadership research, and proffers suggestions for developing and reviewing teacher-leader programs.

Additional Notes: Teacher leader programs assume that effective teachers do more than provide effective instruction. Theoretical bases are in the literature on school improvement, teacher effectiveness, and the nature of leadership. This article explicates selected findings from the literature that can help review teacher-leader programs and give directions for theory development.

The impetus for teacher leadership lies primarily in the research on school improvement and effective schools, which noted the importance of school ethos. Teachers work together to create a climate promoting student success. The studies are self limiting but are the best available findings and can be helpful as guidelines. Collectively the findings suggest teachers in effective schools have competencies and attitudes that permit them to counter traditional school culture and values essential to involvement. Most schools are loosely coupled, effectiveness is assumed unless challenged, problem denial becomes the norm, teachers work alone, they are busy with students which constrains reflection. Teachers in effective schools counter these forces and create some community, understand the change process, view schools as dynamic social systems.

Teacher leaders are first effective teachers. The teacher effectiveness literature describes a command of behaviors such as motivation, expectations, modeling, questioning, direct instruction, classroom management, cooperative grouping. The research has limitations similar to that of the school improvement literature, but is a valuable beginning point for instructional improvement efforts, with four major areas: knowledge of content, educational materials, educational scholarship, and wisdom of practice.

The literature on leadership is extensive; the focus here is on that relevant to teacher leadership. Stogdill notes there are many definitions of leadership. Definitions of teacher leadership in

hierarchical organizations focus on tasks, emphasize group ownership of outcomes, provide affective support for groups, have structures and procedures to move groups toward established outcomes. School and corporate studies have revealed similar findings. Bennis and Nanus identified these categories of competence: self-deployment, empowerment, attention through vision, meaning thorough communication, trust through positioning and similar themes are in others' approaches. Because they appear frequently, they are used here as a structure for explicating effective leader behavior.

Self-development: effective leaders know themselves and view themselves positively, strengthen themselves by determining the best fit between self and job, accept people as they are, approach problems in terms of the present, treat people with respect commonly extended to strangers, are able to trust others, work without need for constant approval, maintain versatility, are patient with themselves, work hard at self-care and at refining knowledge , are self-directed learners, see the big picture, focus, put energy and feeling into their work. Empowerment: effective leaders work in a transformational way. They address themselves to others' wants and motivations, let leader and follower raise each other, let purposes become fused, view their role as creating a culture that embodies a clearly defined set of growth-oriented values, do what they can organizationally to help others in searches for meaning, work selflessly, emphasize strategy more than tactics, have respect for people, equality, and interdependence. Vision: effective leaders articulate a realistic, credible, attractive future that is better than what is now, identify the dangers and opportunities, identify pivotal factors, sequence major events to implement the dream, act on it, personify it, repeat it, incorporate it into the culture, constantly evaluate it, let the vision grow from the needs of the organization and people. Meaning Through Communication: effective leadership is collective; the primary task is to generate enthusiasm for commitment to the vision while focusing on desired outcomes and cultural values. Trust through Positioning: trust has to be earned, through overcoming resistance, behaving predictably in crisis, addressing needs, establishing norms, using patience, focusing on vision and reinforcing vision, providing redevelopment for those who are not committed, hiring new staff in tune with the vision, behaving with integrity on personnel and program matters.

One way of conceptualizing teacher-leader programs is to focus on the three areas of school improvement, effective teaching, and leadership. The author charts a framework for teacher leader programs and sample program outcomes using the five aspects of leadership in areas of school improvement and teacher effectiveness.

The author presents research findings and observations for teacher leader program review and development. He calls for further research to focus on teacher leaders. "Until a body of knowledge is available on what works in leader preparation the profession will be limited in its ability to facilitate school improvement." (50)

Romanish, Bruce. (1993, Summer). Teacher empowerment: The orphan of educational reform, *Action in Teacher Education*, 15, (2), 1-8.

Notes: Teacher empowerment is central to school-based change. The history of modern school reform reveals that externally imposed measures are not successful, teachers get blame for poor school performance but have small voice in decisions that affect their success, and standards for school performance (test scores) exclude other standards and are connected to national economic performance and Education 2000 goals.

This article looks at teacher empowerment against a template of democratic assumptions and conditions and provides a rationale for restructuring, because the democratic theme is almost completely absent in the rhetoric of school change.

School reform of the past decade has not been teacher driven. Teachers desire for greater voice is from their need to be emancipated from the system. With the word power comes resistance. "There is little evidence to demonstrate that teachers are becoming emancipated under current reform initiatives, and where some change has been proposed, the record is spotty at best." (2) Increased pressure for improved performance may bring greater obligations for teachers without greater control unless preceded by what empowerment means for teachers.

Maeroff argues empowerment is increased teacher knowledge; if teachers are better equipped they will be respected but good teachers now have do not have increased influence. This position favors increased obligations without assurances of a larger

professional voice. Reform must be reconsidering school to overhaul the system. Maeroff cites teachers' power in the classroom in authority of rules but that is power over the less powerful, not power to affect the system. Now teachers are "the means through which the system exercises its will." (3) Maeroff does not challenge the hierarchical status quo, offers teachers to work harder but instead they need to be able to work differently.

Prawat distinguishes between epistemological and political aspects of empowerment: epistemologically, teachers acquire critical capacities to judge experts' proposals; politically, they see the settings in which power and authority are seen as obstacles to personal development. But Prawat has a "potentially unnecessary dualism"--the issue is not between greater voice in school decisions or instructional capacities. It is unfair to cite present reform movements as evidence of how teachers ask for empowerment but do not recognize the essential concerns of their work because the reforms most discussed have not been proposed by teachers. McDonald claims that in recent reforms note teachers' voices must fit with technocratic paradigm, not be an authentic voice.

Teachers have no say in programs or teaching models their districts choose, which are often technocratic; although teachers reject them they lack the authority to exercise judgment. Being a professional means having expertise and authority to exercise judgment, reflection, understanding, and a desire to question practice. Professional posture does not happen by chance but is part of one's professional development, beginning in teacher education programs, which now may only prepare teachers for the system as it is. Changing the status of teaching requires the concept of empowerment be defined broadly and be assured (not allowed, which can be taken way), a power secured in the constitution.

Public education should connect with democratic ends. It is a "disturbing omission" (5) that reform discussions do not consider the connection between school structure and civic duty. Beyond providing a general education such as basic literacy, schools should support democratic ventures and people in schools should be "witness to democratic ways and encounter a democratic experience in major aspects of the program." (6) Supporting his argument with Dewey and Wood, the author says that school restructuring must be anchored in democratic practices in schools, which will enlarge the voices of teachers.

Romerdahl, Nancy Sue. (1991, April). *Shared leadership in a professional development center.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

ERIC Abstract: The Puget Sound Professional Development Center (PSPDC) was established in 1989 as a partnership between the University of Washington and four middle schools. PSPDC has created collaborative and substantial teacher leadership roles. In performing the role of teacher leader coordinator (TLC), teachers: (1) were fully participating members of the PSPDC planning and policy making committee; (2) worked to connect the PSPDC mission to their schools and to bring the school's point of view to bear on that mission; and (3)collaborated with peers to promote further teacher leadership and to implement the PSPDC vision. Four TLCs participated in this study to determine how teachers share leadership in a collaborative professional development school. Interviews, observations, and artifact analyses yielded six tentative hypotheses: (1) TLCs influence the direction of PSPDC by being the rudder or at times the brakes; (2) TLCs rely on the bureaucratic legitimacy of the PSPDC or the school to gain compliance; (3) TLCs initially lead their peers by following the path of least resistance; (4) TLCs lead their peers by using persuasive techniques; (5) in the leadership role, the TLCs attend to the feelings of all involved; and(6) with time, TLCs established their own aura of leadership, and thereby began to legitimize their position with their peers. (IAH)

Additional Notes: A professional development center (PDC) is a school which is affiliated with a university to aid new teachers and to continue the growth of experienced teachers. At these schools teachers become mentors, and are active in decision-making about school practices. Teachers are taking on roles outside the classroom which normally belonged to administrators. Teachers remain in the classroom but also become leaders.

In this study the roles of four teacher leader coordinators (TLCs) were examined. Their responsibilities were: the planning core of the professional development center, their individual schools, and being liaison between the two. In the beginning of the study TLCs did not always view the goals of their schools and the goals of the PDC as having common goals. TLCs went to teachers who they knew would help out when they needed to get something done. TLCs stayed

away from the teachers who were less cooperative. TLCs also used persuasion and flattery to get other teachers involved in activities.

Teachers positions need to be legitimized if they are going to become leaders in schools. Teacher leaders need to develop relationships with their peers, by listening and valuing fellow teachers. When TLCs use their position to meet the needs of teachers theire is increased teacher involvement. The creation of these new roles leads to improved education. The shared leadership at a professional development center may show teachers how to function effectively in the new role of teacher leader.

Rowley, James. (1988, May-Jun). The teacher as leader and teacher educator. *Journal of Teacher Education* , 39, (3), 13-16.

ERIC Abstract: This article compares classroom teachers to wilderness guides and identifies four interrelated factors which produce effective leaders in both arenas. Integration of these factors into teacher training programs is discussed.

JTE Abstract: Rowley uses an adventure metaphor as a means of examining the role of the classroom teacher from a leadership perspective. Four elements characteristic of educational adventures are identified and discussed in terms of their implications for the practice of classroom leadership and for the design of professional programs in teacher education. He argues that creating new leadership positions for teachers can play an important role in bringing about substantive change in schools

Additional Notes: A common metaphor for teaching, the growth metaphor, fails to capture a critical challenge of teaching, leadership. As an alternative metaphor he proposes insights coming from his experience as a wilderness canoe guide

He often said he did some of his best teaching on the wilderness trail, even though there were important differences from his classroom. Four factors made him feel like a good teacher a spirit of cooperation, high levels of engagement, the capacity to deal with dissonance, the emergence of shared meaning

Spirit of cooperation: young people come to wilderness trips with spirits of competition or individualism but often develop cooperation as well. He reflected that his best teaching career years

involved working cooperatively with colleagues. Teacher education needs a spirit of cooperation in its programs.

High Levels of Engagement: wilderness guides create experiences which balance challenge and anxiety and participants experience what they learn as fun; good teachers create meaningful experiences for students.

Dealing with Dissonance: in the wilderness risk and dissonance can build self-efficacy; risk and dissonance are part of the human experience and change, so teachers need to learn to deal with it.

Emergence of Shared Meaning: despite different reasons for making trips, a wilderness group may arrive at a common understanding of the experience, even bond, over time and as a result of shared experience. "There must be a way to introduce these kinds of experiences into the design of teacher education programs." (15)

Leadership is elusive but a wilderness guide knows he or she is responsible and needed; in wilderness and classroom the times he was a good leader he was accepted as part of the group yet respected for his contributions, could lead from behind. Many teachers try this but many also get discouraged. Current reform may create a climate for teachers to have life long rewarding teaching careers, but the field of education need more than gentle gardeners; it needs wilderness adventurers.

Sagor, Richard. (1992, April). Collaborative action research: *A cultural mechanism for school development and professional restructuring.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: Findings of a study that identified factors contributing to the maintenance of the collaborative action research process in public schools are presented in this paper. Specifically, the study evaluated outcomes of Project LEARN, the League of Educational Action Researchers in the Northwest, a university-sponsored school improvement initiative. The project is based on the belief that teacher collaboration on research facilitates an effective schooling ethos. Methodology involved two faculty surveys, interviews with teachers, and observation of their principals. Findings indicate that collaborative action research can contribute to the development of a school culture that is conducive to school

improvement. Contributing factors include leadership support for group work, high expectations, an experimental school ethic, and a shared focus. One table and three figures are included. (Contains 27 references.) (LMI)

Additional Notes: School development comes from strengthening teacher roles, and schools which have a set of shared beliefs. It is speculated by the author that an effective schooling ethos will surface from teachers who work together on issues of teaching and learning. Project LEARN was used to test this concept. Teachers have to come in teams to address a research problem that the teachers themselves think of. The training program includes data analysis, presentation and action planning to enable the teachers to start their action research project.

Successful projects were found to have three characteristics: the project was thought to be important by the teachers in the group, support was received from fellow colleagues and administrators, and collegiality occurred within the team. Projects which were unsuccessful possessed the opposite factors of the successful ones. This showed that culture of a school creates the conditions under which collaborative action research can grow or not grow. Where teachers felt they could make a difference student performance was enhanced, and action research continued. Change in the schools also resulted when there were effective leaders who pointed out discrepancies between the desired ends and the means which were currently being used. Collaborative action research can effectively contribute to the development of schools which are open to school improvement. It can contribute to the effectiveness of teachers and ultimately improved student performance.

Scherer, Marge. (1992, Feb). The loneliness of the teacher leader. *Educational leadership*, 49, (5), 55.

Notes: This article was a brief book review, on P. Wasley's *Teachers Who Lead*. Scherer says Wasley documents stories of teacher leaders who doubt they are influencing their colleagues but rather than dismantle their new positions, Wasley asks that teachers be included in the discussion about teacher leadership roles and positions. Wasley outlines a proposal that teachers and administrators could use to work together to generate proposals for instructional improvement in which teacher leaders would

recommend positions for themselves. "Teacher leaders wouldn't be so lonely if there were only more of them. By examining the conditions of actual practice, Wasley points the way toward creating the conditions for more participation in spirited teacher leadership." (55)

Sergiovanni, Thomas J. (1992, Feb). Why we should seek substitutes for leadership. *Educational Leadership* , 49, (5), 41-45.

ERIC Abstract: Although both professionalism and leadership are prescribed as cures for school problems, the two concepts are antithetical. The more professionalism is emphasized, the less leadership is needed. Teachers become more committed and self-managing when schools become true communities, freeing principals from the burden of trying to control people. (12 references) (MLH)

Additional Notes: Improving schools is difficult because we give too much attention to direct leadership rather than to substitutes for leadership so teachers and others can be self-managing.

Leadership mindscapes—what we believe and value, our understanding of the real world—drive leadership practice.

Two questions: should schools be understood as formal organizations or as communities? what is most important when it comes to motivating and inspiring commitment and performance?

The literature on school administration approaches schools as organizations, with management systems, rules and regulations, monitoring and supervising, evaluation systems; leadership is control driven; hierarchical levels above are assumed to know more than and are responsible for evaluating the level below them. Communities are not defined by instrumental purposes, rationally conceived work systems, evaluation schemes, or contrived interpersonal climates. They are defined by their centers, which hold their values and give meaning. School communities would answer questions like what is this school about?

Community norms provide schools with a direct substitute for leadership. As collective norms become established, principals can give less attention to managing. Teachers have an obligation to develop the center of shared values depending on a vision more than a person so the core values remain even when people leave.

Professionalism and leadership are both offered as cures for school problems but are often antithetical. Leadership is less urgent once the wheels of professionalism begin to turn for themselves. Schools considering professionalism often look at teacher competence, but professionalism requires more than competence; it includes trust and virtue. Professional virtue has four dimensions: commitment to (1) practice in an exemplary way (staying abreast, doing research, experimenting, sharing insights), (2) valued social ends (placing one's self in service to students, parents, agreed-on school purposes as a kind of stewardship), (3) not just one's own work but the practice itself(from individual to collective practice for the good of teaching itself), (4) the ethic of caring (a concern for the whole person).

Collegiality must be understood as a form of professional virtue; congeniality nor contrived collegiality are not powerful enough. Two dimensions of collegiality as a professional virtue are the fulfillment of obligations toward the teaching profession and the school community. The other is that people behave collegiality because it is both effective and good to do so. A position of "what gets rewarded gets done" assumes people are motivated by self-interest, discourages self-motivation. People also want to be morally responsive, are capable of acting in response to obligation and a sense of right and good, which leads to "what is rewarding gets done" and "what we believe in, think to be good, and feel obligated to do gets done."

Short, Paula M. & Rinehart, James. (1993). *Teacher Empowerment and School Climate*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta.

ERIC Abstract: Findings of a study that examined the relationship between teachers' perceptions of school climate and their perceptions of empowerment are presented in this paper. Questionnaires were completed by 257 teachers in 6 states from 8 schools, who participated in nationwide school empowerment projects. Findings indicate that school climate, age, and experience were significant predictors of the dependent variable, empowerment. This suggests that greater empowerment may result in increased organizational conflict and lowered school climate. As teachers become empowered, they become more critical of school functioning and need organizational problem-solving skills and an

awareness of group processes. One table is included. (25 references) (LMI)

After a review of the research on school reform and teacher empowerment, the authors cite as the objective of the study the investigation of the relationship of participants' perceptions of school climate and empowerment, contending that there is little research on teachers' perceptions of empowerment and little research on the connection between perception of empowerment and teacher characteristics. The authors used an empowerment scale, the School Participant Empowerment Scale, which they developed for the study, as well as a school climate questionnaire and demographic information from teachers.

Levels of empowerment perceived by teachers were related to their perceptions of school climate, age, and years of experience. The authors posit that when teachers' involvement in school decisionmaking increases, opportunities for conflict also increase as ideologies and perceptions are being questioned and changed. In addition, involvement in decisionmaking requires complex communication and substantive changes, which may precipitate organizational conflict. With empowerment, however, teachers think they can impact the work of the organization. "Teachers may more openly and readily evaluate, both positively and negatively, the work of the organization." (12)

One implication is that teachers need systematic instruction in problem solving and communication skills so they can deal with potential conflict coming from empowerment

Sirotnik, K., & Clark, R. W. (1988). School-centered decision making and renewal. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 69 (6), 660-64. EJ 370 312

ERIC Abstract: Argues for a school-centered renewal process making schools the target of improvement efforts and the site of professional inquiry and reflective practice to determine educational change. Examines the creation and use of knowledge, the nature of schools as organizations, and the lessons learned from experience. Includes 18 references. (MLH)

Additional Notes: The authors open with three stories of how school-based management is being interpreted differently at different sites

because there is a fundamental lack of understanding of the real issues involved in school improvement.

Part of the problem is language: the word management focuses attention on activities that are only indirectly related to instruction; school-based seems to imply either a school makes all its own decisions or not, which ignores the broader environment schools operate in. The authors think schools should be centers of decisionmaking but we cannot ignore their surrounding contexts. Centers are different from bases; center means focal point or target of change and also site of professional inquiry and practice. In arguing for a combination of the two, the authors discuss the creation of knowledge, schools as organizations, and lessons from experience.

The traditional model of school improvement is based in the split between research and practice, between knowledge developed objectively from experts handed to practitioners through the series of development, dissemination, implementation, and evaluation of effectiveness in practice. Then schools and teachers are seen as places and people in need of repair, "as *objects* to be changed, not as *centers of change*." (661)

As an example, the authors describe a school's attempt to deal with individual differences by choosing "one or another brand" of cooperative learning, which is packaged and dispensed through inservice training with the assumption that the more standardized the packet, the more likely the intended outcomes will be achieved.

The alternative is schools as centers of inquiry. For a school which is a center of inquiry dealing with individual differences, teachers would ask a series of questions about how they are doing now and what else they might do. The authors don't want schools to become research and development centers or rediscover the wheel but we must accept the personal nature of knowledge, that knowing is a kind of doing, that inquiry is not value-free, that individuals must re-know in the context of activity. Critical inquiry includes understanding the problem, the values, includes seeking information, and taking action. Other agencies involved in schooling (districts, consultants, parents, students) can all take part but schools should be the centers.

What we know about organization theory means that schools should be focal points for decisionmaking and renewal. Their cultures are complex, with values at the heart--not what Scott and Hart call the "weenie syndrome" in which people need to be stuffed but participation that takes advantages of members' knowledge and skills, more like what Benson and Etzioni described as dialectical or active organizations.

Berman and McLaughlin in the RAND Corporation study of 400 funded projects in school change listed characteristics of school change which Tikunoff and Ward describe as characteristics of successful collaborative research and essential parts of critical inquiry. The teacher still makes critical decisions behind a classroom door and the question is whether or not she will make it in conjunction with others in critical inquiry.

The school as a center of inquiry is not a new idea but present conditions are antithetical to this change, so schools must be significantly altered. Inquiry is process but also attitude. Leadership can come from several sources; ideally the leadership will arise from collaboration. If schools are only the target and not the centers of change we will fail to tap the talent already there. The power to change is in the hands of educators.

Smylie, Mark A. , & Brownlee-Conyers, Jean. (1992, May). Teacher leaders and their principals: Exploring the development of new working relationships. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 28, (2), 150-84.

ERIC Abstract: Presents findings of a study exploring the development of new working relationships between teacher leaders and their principals. Uses a micropolitical perspective to document the interests and prerogatives brought by both parties to the new relationships. Raises important issues concerning the principal's role in teacher leadership development and the normative contexts of schools. (72 references) (MLH)

Additional Notes: Teacher leadership is a key element in recent initiatives to enhance the teaching profession, although it is not new. New relationships between teacher leaders and their colleagues and with principals are key to efficacy. This article reviews the literature on conditions of teachers and principals work in schools that form the context of new working relationships and then

presents the findings of a study to identify and describe key factors related to the development of these new relationships using a micropolitical perspective of viewing relationships as dynamic, grounded in individual beliefs and school social norms.

Research reveals that teachers and principals work in isolation and on different aspects of schooling, showing differences in professional focus. Teachers and principals may have worked on common issues infrequently, have had little opportunity to build trust (and may have distrust from previous conflicts). Teacher leadership roles may alter the teacher leaders' position with her colleagues, conflict with teachers' classroom-centered, student-centered conception of their work. These conflicts may mediate development of new understandings of new roles. Developing new working relationships between teacher leaders and principals is complex, shaped by factors such as orientations, attitudes, patterns of work behavior, histories of interactions that they bring as individuals but also social and normative dimensions that constitute organizational contexts.

This study looked at teacher leadership positions resembling Devaney's conception, established as part of a districtwide career enhancement program. Two kinds of teacher-leader positions, one in a building and the other with district focus. This study looked at seven of them at the building level and their relationships with principals.

The micropolitical perspective focuses on the use of power in the organization to achieved preferred outcomes, looking at hidden agendas more than at formal organization, especially interpersonal interaction and strategic transaction among individuals and groups in the absence of formal operating procedures. This study suggests that new working relationships are in large part "products of intentional strategies employed by both teacher leaders and their principals to maintain or to advance their own prerogatives and self-interests" (161) grounded in assumptions about teacher leadership and previous roles to which they have been socialized.

Factors related to the development of working relationships in all seven pairs of teacher-leaders and principals were the following: Ambiguities and Uncertainties (regarding expectations, new roles, trust, requisite skills); Interests and Prerogatives (both thought it in their interest to reduce ambiguity; principals thought it

important to keep prerogatives such as decisions regarding school budgets, personnel evaluation, community relationships, other managerial functions; teachers acknowledged principals' prerogatives in budget, personnel evaluation and community relations and asked for information about managerial functions, which avoided conflict; they realized that principals' support was necessary for their success and as one said, "When it's all said and done, he's still my boss." Teachers concerns were work with classrooms and students, time from their own teaching, relationships with other teachers in their building. Both teacher leaders and principals identified their initial perceptions and expectations for the role as very important; those who saw the new role as a big departure were more doubtful that it would contribute to school improvement but teachers were in general more optimistic than principals. The obligations they held for each other were expressed in interpersonal rather than task related terms (honesty, trustworthiness, maintaining confidence).

Principals and teacher leaders used strategic interaction to shape their working relationships: most principals assigned explicit tasks and deadlines, to maintain communication and regulate the type and pace of activity in their buildings; all principals reported using strategies to shape interpersonal dimensions such as complimenting, encouraging. Teacher leaders identified strategies they used to shape relationships with principals, some to advance their ideas and some to avoid conflict (e.g., planting ideas indirectly like seeds, using compliments, judging moods or receptivity, acknowledging some areas of principal domain such as budget, listening carefully to their needs and concerns. Teacher leaders also tried to preserve relationships with their fellow teachers via conveying other teachers' concerns to the principal, but some seemed to be interested in keeping their connection to teachers. "It seemed that they could demonstrate their continued membership in the collegium if they remained subject to the same control mechanisms as other teachers." (168) Some principals and teacher leaders had difficulty with the interpersonal aspects of working as colleagues.

Key events such as staff development efforts or public performances at conferences or school board meetings were more important than strategies in shaping the working relationship, building mutual respect and confidence.

The authors describe three teacher-leader and principal pairs in detail to illustrate three kinds of relationships: collaborative, controlled, and confrontational.

Summary points from the study are these: 1)the more ambiguity, the more teacher leaders and principals tried to formalize the relationship; 2)the working relationship developed in relation to expectations; if those differed, there was tension and perhaps less was accomplished; 3)they used strategies to shape the working relationship; 4)key events not related to daily activities had great impact; 5) the working relationships progressed from an inward focus on self-interest and interpersonal relationships to symbiosis and task focus.

Smylie, Mark A., & Denny, Jack W. (1990, Aug). Teacher leadership: Tensions and ambiguities in organizational perspective. *Educational Administration Quarterly* , 26, (3), 235-59.

ERIC Abstract: Presents findings of a study exploring teacher leadership roles in a metropolitan K-8 school district. Results show that the development and performance of these roles are mediated by their organizational contexts. Teacher leadership should be approached as an organizational development issue rather than solely as an individual empowerment issue. Includes 50 references. (MLH)

Additional Notes: Education reforms in the 80's had two waves. The first tried to improve the effectiveness of teaching through regulation and prescription, substituting external authority for local autonomy and expertise, specifying what should be done in the classroom and holding teachers accountable for doing it, based on an assumption that schools are rational bureaucracies. Critics of the first wave say school and teaching is more complex and organic. The second wave suggests education reform needs to respond to local variation, enhance teachers, adapt to changing classrooms, and focus on school environments. The development of new leadership roles is on the crest of the second wave.

Current teacher leadership initiatives seek to enhance professional status of teachers, to tap local expertise, to support local autonomy. Although teacher leadership is not new, there is an increased recognition of it, with visions of expanded roles and a new hope of contribution to school reform as well as efforts to institutionalize

the roles. Opportunities have come from shrewd decisionmaking; school improvement teams; instructional support groups; teacher-led principal advisory councils; decentralized staff; curriculum, program development, and program and personnel evaluation; and job redesign initiatives.

The prevailing pattern of leadership has focused on the individual teacher leader with a formal role, which ignores two important issues— how individuals adjust the tensions and ambiguities of their new roles and how the organizational and personal factors mediate the new roles. This study reports an exploratory study in those two areas.

The teacher leadership roles investigated were part of a district career enhancement program. The roles resembled the lead teacher concept as described by Devaney, with the specifics of the role developed in schools but with general objectives of achieving collegiality and improving professional learning for all teachers. The study looked at three questions: how did they define their roles, what factors influenced the development of the roles, and how did other teachers respond?

Teacher leaders defined their roles in terms of helping, in supporting fellow teachers--as enablers in the classroom and with classroom practice. They spend most of their time in meetings and working at the district level, a discrepancy from how they viewed their role. The factors that influenced the development of their role included certainties (of district support, their own knowledge, their schools' needs, their authority, their goals) and uncertainties (what their fellow teachers understood of their role and expected). They also noted important needs of a close working relationships with teachers and principal, and not infringing on the principal's leadership. The third set of factors dealt with tensions, in allocation of time between leadership work and classroom, in their goals and teachers' goals for them. Other teachers noted benefits from the teachers leaders work, more for the building and district than for individual teachers. Those who noted personal benefits cited growth in classroom practice and staff development opportunities and enhanced professional climate at the school. A few were critical of the elitist aspect, or the time away from teaching or too much time at the district level. In the confusion about what the teacher leaders' roles should be, many teachers formed their own opinions (describing them as administrators, supervisors,

evaluators, mentors, and master teachers); teachers evaluated the teacher leaders according to their own ideas of what they thought that person should be doing.

Teacher leaders in this district defined their roles as helping but they worked mostly on program development, decisionmaking and work with administrators. The author looked at the definition-performance discrepancy more closely, at structure, and at patterns of power and belief. Structure contributed to the discrepancy because of time and access—teacher leaders had only modest release time, were often not available during teachers' work days to work with them; program planning and decisionmaking were activities they could do before and after school and in the summer. Patterns of power and belief shaped the teacher-leader roles because they seemed reluctant to challenge egalitarian norms of teaching and to challenge principals (as one said, "After all, he still is my boss"). (254) Structure and patterns of power and belief were all concerns which lead teacher leaders to play it safe, a situation exacerbated by the ambiguity of their role. Structure (time and accessibility) and norms reinforced each other. "...the definition and performance of teacher leadership roles may be influenced substantially by the organizational contexts in which they are established." (256) Implications for policy and program are that "individual appoint, anoint, and training approaches may be inadequate" (256), attention to structure of role and patterns of practice, power, and belief are needed. Teachers themselves may be a barrier to the second wave of reform. If they reject or compromise the attempts to professionalize teaching through job redesign and organizational restructuring, the second wave will falter.

Strodl, Peter. (1992, March). A model of teacher leadership Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Educational Research Association, Hilton Head.

ERIC Abstract: The paper develops a conceptual framework for teacher leadership and empirically verifies the existence of teacher leadership skills through a survey of 170 teachers The model of transformational leadership, based on several leadership theories, is presented to advance increased teacher participation in instructional leadership. The model includes three major elements: potential or informal leadership, conflict or problem issues, and articulation and empowerment of solutions. The elements provide a format for analyzing issues in leadership as they apply to teachers

and the process of instructional leadership. Formal and informal leadership are exercised by both principals and teachers; conflict of some kind is necessary for the emergence of effective leadership; and people must have common issues which need resolution. Essential to the leadership-empowerment cycle is having more than one leader. Though there may be one designated leader, there are other informal leaders. An ethical response to conflict is necessary in the leadership-empowerment cycle, with the leader responding in terms of group ethics and values. Implications for further study include the need to discover teacher leadership skills in a broadly based sampling of teachers who are mentors, members of school leadership or site-based management committees, more experienced teachers, teacher trainers, administrative interns, department chairpersons, specialized subject area teachers, and band and athletics directors. (SM)

Additional Notes: Leaders have been defined as people who bring about change. Teachers change lives of students in their classrooms. Teachers are formal and informal leaders in and out of the classroom. Formal leadeship is based on rules provided by an organization. Informal leadership is based on the relationships between individuals.

There needs to be a conflict for effective leadership. In order for people to come together there must be a common problem that needs to be resolved. There are usually individuals among the group who communicate, and solve conflicts better than others. In a group there can be more than one leader. Very active participants are emerging leaders. Leaders also deal with values associated with the problem. Leaders empower others to get involved with activities they wouldn't have normally done.

Leadership is an informal characteristic of teaching. Teachers help each other and students and coach new teachers into teaching. As schools are being restructured, informal leadership is becoming more formal. In these types of schools there will be more cooperative work which will lead to instructional leadership in schools. Interpersonal relationships should be coordinated with formal leadership to increase teacher leadership.

Troen, Vivian & Boles, Katherine. (1992, April). *Leadership from the classroom: Women teachers as a key to school reform.* Paper

presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: Findings of a study that examined female teacher leaders' views of teacher leadership are presented in this paper, which focuses on the potential of teacher leadership for facilitating school reform. Interviews were conducted with six women teacher leaders involved in restructuring efforts--three in school/college collaboration and three in curriculum reform. Findings illustrate how the women succeeded despite the school structures in which they worked. Teacher leadership initiatives provided them with opportunities for collaboration, professional development, and affecting school change. A drawback was the loss of connectedness to former peers, which raises the question of how to redefine power and leadership in feminist terms. (Contains 35 references.) (LMI)

Additional Notes: School reform reports have recommended teacher leadership, but the initiative runs contrary to the norms of teaching. Since the mid-nineteenth century teaching has been women's work and women are followers, not leaders. The teacher leadership literature has had two phases: what should happen (Carnegie, California Commission, Devaney) and what is happening (Lieberman, Wasley, Cooper). This paper studies teachers who lead and remain in the classroom, adding the dimension of gender.

Each of the six teachers studied teaches elementary children at least part of the day, exerts influence beyond her classroom, has initiated a project to improve her school and redesign her work. Common characteristics were passion about her project, a clear vision for school reform, and perseverance in the face of obstacles. Each was in mid-career, consistent with Erickson and Belenky regarding adult and women's development. They were regarded as excellent teachers by colleagues and demonstrated enthusiasm by attending conferences, teaching workshops and college courses, pursuing advanced degrees.

Their projects were restructuring efforts to alter their school environment, through either school/college collaboratives or curriculum efforts. The primary motivator for all was dissatisfaction with the status quo. They addressed two kinds of problems—child-related issues and adult-related issues. Issues of curriculum were of top priority; teachers were not interested in moving into administration. Collaboration was important—they

sought supportive colleagues and then spread the word; their leadership was not positional so they had to attract others to their ideas, similar to women in business, and sometimes finding support from parents and the community.

Barriers included resistance from other teachers related to the egalitarian nature of teaching, including jealousy, competition, and lack of support. The teacher leaders discovered the difference between collegial and congenial relationships and felt isolated. Some blamed the administration (one teacher leader's principal described her efforts as cute); an inner city teacher cited lack of understanding from parents who did not realize that change was best for their child. Other obstacles were time and institutional structure.

Professional growth was not the goal of any of the teachers' projects but it was accomplished, consistent with feminist theory that substantive growth occurs with others to whom women feel connected; teachers felt their projects had deepened their conversations which improved their teaching. They also learned skills not generally related to teaching, such as communicating effectively with adults, building coalitions, listening to peers, working behind the scenes, developing strategies for change, generally becoming more politically savvy and confident.

Inherent in the school reform movement is the question of power. The established hierarchy puts teachers in a power-low position, making it difficult for them to be credible forces of change, except in the classroom. When teachers affect life outside of classrooms they confront the principal and other reluctant teachers, so they must wrestle with both those above and equal in the hierarchy.

Women in the study were reluctant to define power, saying the word had negative associations with authoritarian bosses, but when pressed said it meant the freedom to control the work they did. They equated power with control over change, curriculum, budget, professional development, and preservice training. The issue of power needs further examination for teacher leadership and school reform.

Teachers already exist who can lead and there could be more if the structure and culture of the school allowed teacher leadership to flourish. These teachers succeeded despite their schools. They are

primarily interested in improving teaching and curriculum for children; leadership concerns come second. Relationships, important to women, changed when they became leaders. Most studies of teacher leadership have focused on roles of mentoring and coaching, common examples of ways women lead, but teacher leaders can play roles in school reform.

Troen, Vivian. (1988, November). The teaching project: a model for teacher empowerment. *Language Arts,* 65, 688-692.

ERIC Abstract: Describes a public school-university collaboration in which graduate students in education work full-time in classrooms and are included in every facet of the school day, while veteran teachers play a major role in training these interns, and serve as supervisors and lecturers at twice-weekly college seminars. (SR)

Additional Notes: The authors contend the only way to making teaching a real profession is to alter substantially the job description and work life of teachers, overlooked in school reform attempts. They are two elementary teachers who created a model for redesigning the school day and reorganizing staffing patterns to provide teachers with time for reflection, dialogue, and decisionmaking at the building level. A school/university collaboration at Edward Devotion School has preservice training, alternative roles for teachers, and team teaching.

The preservice component provides clinical opportunities to graduate students at Wheelock College to work full time in classrooms. At regularly scheduled sessions, veteran teachers present in their areas of expertise (often never-before shared with peers). The team teaching component is a schedule with three joint planning sessions per week, which has promoted ideas exchange. In the Alternative Professional Teaching Time (APT) component, teachers have expanded amounts of time not with children to pursue one of three roles: teacher/researcher, teacher/trainer and teacher/curriculum writer.

They have raised the consciousness of their central administration and continue to investigate new ways to teach so that teaching will become a profession.

Wagner, Laura A. (1986, April). *A state perspective on teacher leadership roles: The potential of the California mentor teacher program.* Paper

presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: The California Mentor Teacher Program is one of many efforts to improve teacher supply and quality, provide professional support, and offer alternative motivators and reward systems. This paper explores teacher leadership issues offered by this program. Using data from a 1985 joint study of the mentor initiative (by California State Department of Education and Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development), the analysis describes current program adaptations, stress points, and areas needing greater support. Findings show that (1) local program definitions vary enormously, (2) broad variations in mentoring control occur, and (3) most mentoring happens with experienced teachers working on curriculum and instruction. The program raises some individual and organizational stress points, including exemplary teacher status versus peer acceptance, unclear mentoring technology, and lack of effectiveness indicators ensuring the program's future. Increasing teachers' decision-making power and providing career advancement opportunities will require multiple sources of support. These include training and support to implement the program (mainly released time for teachers to work together), integration of mentor programs with other improvements such as leadership and career development. Included are 3 tables and 28 references. (MLH)

Additional Notes: Most of the mentors' time is spent with students, and teachers working on curriculum. The main focus of the mentors' work was on curriculum development. Collegial interaction was more of a threatening change than curriculum development Development of curriculum is easier to measure in a project form than instructional work. Mentors seemed to work more with experienced teachers than new teachers.

The role of teacher leaders has been defined im many ways Collegial support is generally thought of one of the main leadership roles. There are mentors who do not have collegial interactions. but also make important contributions such as writing curriculum and processes for improvement,and organizing teacher-administrator interaction. Mentors do not evaluate others but they do give feedback on observations of instructions. A problem for mentors is getting release time. Usually mentor teachers are the best teachers. The best teachers are wanted in the classroom as much as possible

by administrators. On the other hand they are wanted outside the classroom to work with other teachers. Teachers need to exchange ideas about their teaching practices throughout the work day. Mentors also need help in observational and training skills. Mentor programs should integrated with other school improvement initiatives. Other aspects of teaching such as teacher salaries, working conditions, and professional development in order to improve teaching as a whole must improve for teachers to consider their work as a career.

Walen, Elizabeth & DeRose, Mimi. (1993, October). The power of peer appraisals. *Educational Leadership*, 51, (2), 45-48.

Notes: With principal support, nine colleagues at Summit Elementary developed a peer appraisal process. Preliminary steps included socializing outside the school day, training each other to ask hard questions, working in teams of three or four, and keeping goals manageable. After the first trial, all agreed they had gained more from peer appraisal than standard observation.

To create an atmosphere of support for critical questions, they met in groups before and after school, limited observations to four, co-authored two letters, used two observers, devised a rotation schedule, did dry run sessions, built trust over time. At the end of the term they wrote letters in pairs to their colleagues. The principal also conducted his observations, made sure they were working within district and state guidelines; interviewed the team regarding teachers observed and made his comments more personal than before.

There are many ways to do alternative appraisal process but there are four prerequisites: support from district and building administrators, trust, time, and voluntary participation. Through the process teachers value diversity and consider themselves their own best resources.

Wallace, David, & Allum, Keith. (1992, April). *Developing teacher leadership for educational reform: New directions for teacher expertise*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Citing three areas of teacher leadership, (1) emerging roles of teachers, (2) changing organizational conditions, and (3) professional development structures,the authors focus on area (3), especially the National Foundation for the Improvement of Education's Christa McAuliffe Institute (CMI), devoted to recognizing, improving, and sharing teacher expertise. Their study compares teachers who participated in the Institute with others who applied but did not attend. Empowerment, expertise, and learning environments were constructs for a framework for teacher leadership development. A survey collected information on multiple indicators of intrapersonal growth. The majority of CMI participants reported significant or extensive change in their sense of empowerment but had less dramatic changes in knowledge or skills which the authors propose suggests that increases in skills alone do not account for subsequent teacher change. Respondents also notes interpersonal growth as well, addressing the issue of overcoming teacher isolation. The authors propose three clusters of leadership activities: catalytic, traditional, and broker. The Christa McAuliffe Institute contributes to increases in empowerment, interaction, and involvement in leadership activities.

Wasley, Patricia. (1989, March). *Lead teachers and teachers who lead: Reform rhetoric and real practice.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: This paper describes a study done to better understand teacher leadership as it is currently practiced in public schools. The study was an exploratory one, consisting of three case studies of teachers who hold leadership positions within their schools. Each of the teacher leaders played a distinctly different kind of leadership role;worked at a different level in the K-12 system; worked in a different kind of educational setting from rural to suburban, and existed in a uniquely different context. This paper briefly reviews the framing questions of the study (e.g., What is the nature of the lead teacher's work? What are the constraints and supports of their positions? How are teacher leaders selected and evaluated? Next, a summary is presented of the literature on teacher leadership, following which the case study methodology is discussed and the data sources described. A "snapshot" description of each of the cases studied is then provided, the findings are reviewed, and the implications for both rhetoric and real practice are discussed. In general, it was found that these teacher leaders were constrained by

their lack of time, by the original conceptions of their roles, and by the egalitarian ethic in teaching. In all cases, administrative support was crucial. Implications for further research are briefly discussed. (JD)

Additional Notes: Teachers are not significant participants in the improvement of schools. Teachers should have more opportunities to become involved in changing schools. Teachers should also be allowed to express their need for these new roles. Teachers who are in leaderhip postitions find that moving beyond their classrooms allows them to grow intellectually.

This study consisted of three teachers who were in three different kinds of leadership positions. The three cases showed that teachers take on various roles under the title of leader. They work as curricular and instructional mentors for other teachers, curriculum developers, and staff developers.

Teachers felt restricted by lack of time, administrator's conceptions of the job, and the ethic that all teachers have equal status. They also felt the time alloted for them to lead was very important and so was the support of the administration. Leadership positions were thought of in terms of department heads and association work, but these roles did not necessarily help teachers in their classrooms. Teachers felt that they needed training to help them in their leadership roles. They would like more to time to work together and have a chance to make decisions which would affect education.

All of the teachers in the study indicated that their teaching skills had increased because of their leadership positions. They grew as they taught courses to their colleagues, and as they were exposed to new ideas by watching other teachers. Instruction of teachers was not significantly influenced, with the exception of one teacher by the teacher leaders.

Some teachers felt that all teachers should be allowed to lead at times rather than creating single positions. Teachers felt uncomfortable with the leadership position because the NEA position on teacher leadership is unclear. It is not dismissed but not clearly encouraged either. In order for teacher leaders to be influential teachers and administrators need to work together. In all of the cases, colleagues seemed to support the teacher leaders openly but

in reality felt that the new role caused problems or was meaningless. All of the teacher leaders in the study also felt that they influenced teachers outside of their schools in other districts but had little effect in their own schools. Teachers are needed to use their own expertise to strengthen their profession.

Wasley, Patricia A. & McElliott, Karen S. (1989). Becoming colleagues: Teachers as researchers. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

ERIC Abstract: This paper describes the rationale, the processes and the outcomes of a teacher-based research project which was undertaken during 1987-88. In the course of the project, university faculty and local school district teachers came together to work, forming two kinds of collegial relationships—teachers working with their fellow teachers and university faculty working with teachers. the project described was established to define teacher leadership as it currently exists in schools from teachers' perspectives. During the course of the study, the group developed and conducted a survey of teachers whom they considered to be leaders within their districts. The purpose of the survey was to determine how teachers define teacher leadership.

The teachers involved in the analysis of the data and in the writing of the report determined that the findings held implications for the teachers themselves, or school administrators, and also for university faculty. These implications were formulated as recommendations on the roles and responsibilities of each group. The first half of the report describes the history of the project, summarizes the findings from the research, and describes the university's role in the project. The second half of the report discusses the benefits and problems of participation in such a venture from the teacher's perspective. (JD)

Notes: This project was established to define teacher leadership as it exists in schools from a teacher's point of view. The study showed that teachers thought that leadership responsibilities consisted of roles ranging from department heads, staff development trainers to school improvement committee chairs and exemplary teachers. Teachers who are considered leaders have been teaching for sixteen to twenty-two years and are well educated, and hold advanced degrees and certifications. The findings of the study also showed that teachers who were leaders were reluctant to call themselves

as such. Teachers feel that they are all on the same status. These teacher leaders had several common personality characteristics. They believed that they could make a difference inside as well as outside of the classroom.

Recommendations for teachers given from results of the study were: teachers should look within their own ranks for leadership and not always to the outside, teachers want and need new challenges, and teachers should understand that new responsibilities come with new roles. Administrators should help in building leadership roles for teachers to improve the quality of teaching, allow teachers time to work with each other, and encourage diversity among thinking in teachers. University faculty should promote leadership roles in teacher preparation programs, support mentoring, and work with districts to include teachers in professional training.

Teachers and researchers had to become colleagues for this study. Teachers were not coming to university faculty as subjects of their research. The teachers became active participants who were doing the research themselves. Teachers gained respect for all the work that went into conducting research, and the university faculty learned more about the difficulties of teaching. Faculty also learned how to present research results in a way that was more useful for teachers.

Teachers who participated in this project expressed concerns about the future of teaching. Teachers felt that teaching should hold a more equal status to other professions. They also felt that every teacher should be able to develop leadership skills, but should also remain in the classroom.

Teachers who participated in the group feel that learning from their peers can be more helpful than learning from experts. Teachers appreciated the opportunity to work with colleagues. There is less feeling of isolation among teachers in the same school. The finished report was evidence that teachers do have a voice and can make contributions to research.

Weber, James R. *Instructional Leadership: A Composite Working Model. Synthesis of the Literature.* ERIC: Clearinghouse on Educational Management

ERIC Abstract: This synthesis of research findings translates investigations in instructional leadership into a working model for practitioners--principals, assistant principals, teachers, and others. Three kinds of research--theoretical, practical, and ethnographic--are used to develop a model based on six interrelated functions of instructional leadership, covered in six chapters. The first of these is setting academic goals, and this involves communicating a vision of success and developing a plan of action. Chapter 2 addresses the task of organizing the instructional program. Included is a discussion of managing the school as a loosely coupled system, a section on curriculum management, and an outline of organizational strategies. Chapter 3 discusses the hiring, supervision, and evaluation of teachers. Chapter 4 provides strategies for protecting instructional time and programs, and chapter 5 discusses the importance of maintaining high expectations to establish a climate for learning. Chapter 6 is devoted to monitoring achievement levels and evaluating programs. Instead of the more common "engineering" model of evaluation (based on input/output analysis), a "medical" model is proposed, based on assessing a wider range of characteristics and looking at unintended as well as intended outcomes. A 7-page bibliography lists 71 references. (TE)

Additional Notes: Instructional leadership includes management and supervision. It includes managing an organization which is the school and developing relationships with faculty and students. The synthetic model of instructional leadership is based on the idea that the principal is thought of as the top instructional leader, with duties which are sometimes shared. The instructional leader should be familiar with all levels of instruction in the school. Successful leaders know what they want from their schools and make plans to get what they want.

Instructional leadership seems to have an effect on the encouragement of team teaching in schools. School leaders use persuasion to get a job done. Leaders should pay attention to the issues that teachers agree on. Teachers will work together on the same issues they see as a problem.

Two major areas of instructional leadership are curriculum management and staff development. Principals are responsible for planning and implementing curriculum changes in the classroom. Control over purchasing materials and time spent on instruction are

the two strongest areas of influence. Instructional leaders can involve teachers in curriculum planning by keeping teachers informed and finding what interests they have in common. While implementing curriculum changes teachers want to feel that their principal is working with them. Peer support is also needed. Principals should get teachers together to discuss the new curriculum. There is usually resistance to a new curriculum, teachers must adapt to the curriculum and the new curriculum must be adapted by the teachers who are using it.

Two of the most imortant tasks a principal have as an instructional leader may be hiring and supervising of teachers. A school can not function effectively without competent teachers. Supervision of teachers is needed to stimulate experienced teachers. Instructional leaders must have knowledge of the curriculum in order to observe teachers and be able to evaluate them and give feedback. Principals should make the teachers feel that they are colleagues who can share ideas and concerns with each other.

In order to implement effective staff development, principals should support development issues that teachers are concerned with themselves. The best staff development occurs when it comes from everyday issues in the school, which are not planned workshops. Inservice programs will be more effective if participants are active in the planning. Improvement which is introduced to the school from the outside will not be successful unless the principal encourages teachers who devlop new methods of how they see their profession. Instructional leaders should make sure that the teachers and students have high expectations for each other and themselves. If the learning climate is negative, it is the principal's job to turn it into a positive one. Instructional leaders are also responsible for revising whole programs in schools. The most important area of leadership in schools is setting instructional goals because it incorporates
other areas of concern.

Welker, Robert. (1992). *The Teacher as Expert; A theoretical and historical examination*. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Notes: Welker examines the idea of expertise as it relates to the craft of teaching. Viewing the expert as a person of power and authority as well as a person who knows, Welker notes that despite many advantages, viewing the teacher as expert has limitations and

can be asserted "only at some damage to a more public, inclusive, and moral understanding of a teacher's practice." (2). Welker examines expertise in the progressive era, in light of the meaning of professionalism, in the romantic movement in education, and in the current debate about technical and liberal educational practice. The author concludes that "the perspectives of critical and social reconstruction need to be taken far more seriously both within the schools and in the preparation of teachers." (134) The point of educational service is not teacher performance but to get the student to perform. Teachers have an unavoidable connection to the wisdom and needs of the common people. "We must affirm that a public educational system built around exclusive knowledge and exclusive privilege operates at cross purposes." (137)

Wilson, Meena. (1993, Mar). The search for teacher leaders. *Educational Leadership*, 50, (6), 24-27.

ERIC Abstract: Interviews with 400 high school teachers nominated by colleagues suggest teacher leaders seek challenge, change, growth; are supportive of colleagues; serve as role models for students but not for other teachers. Interviewees felt their influence in the high school was curtailed by school-culture and professional norms, as well as self-imposed limits and distrust of school leadership style and structure. (MLH)

Additional Notes: Wilson asked over 400 teachers at six high schools in one district to nominate teachers they thought were leaders. Their reasons, very consistent, were: 1) they are hardworking, highly involved with curriculum and instructional innovation, 2)they demonstrate creativity by motivating a wide variety of kinds of students, 3)they are gregarious, available to other teachers as a resource, 4)they sponsor extracurricular activities.

Additional interviews gave a fuller picture of a teacher leader--a typical leader is 42, has taught for 18 years, been at the same school for about 13 years, more than half have served as formal leaders (department chair, union representative), and has a master's degree.

Wilson used Kouzes and Posner's model of leadership to describe their behaviors. Leaders challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, model the way, and encourage the heart.

She interviewed 13 teacher leaders in depth, using Kouzes and Posner to frame the discussion of their responses. Teacher leaders she talked with seek challenge and growth, feel like a family (informal, dependable, supportive). They do not seem to lead colleagues but they are potent leaders of students. For other teachers, skill with students is what qualifies some teachers as leaders in their school. Wilson says teacher leaders don't see that modeling is a powerful form of leading, which aborts their leadership potential. They seldom had opportunities for coaching other teachers.

One leadership behavior not seen was "envisioning a unique and ideal future" They had personal dreams but not clear visions of the school and only two said teaches are entitled to express an idea of what they want the school to be like. They wanted schools to be communities with shared resources and greater control for teachers but their ideas were not clearly framed or expressed enough to be considered a shared vision.

The capabilities that distinguished teacher leaders from others in the high school environment (like risk taking, collaboration, and role modeling) created tensions with colleagues. Administrators who preferred to avoid risk and maintain order, but teacher leaders accepted that administrators had different agendas and adopted a non adversarial position. Teacher leaders want to collaborate, often found administrators by habit not comfortable with teamwork that challenged hierarchical authority. Teacher leaders are committed to student welfare and dismayed by teachers who are less committed but they didn't censure those teachers because they thought part of professional norms was not criticizing colleagues. School culture as perceived by these teachers "does not reward (and perhaps obstructs) risk-taking, collaboration, and role-modeling." When leadership traits create stress with colleagues, they prefer persuasion to confrontation.

"Their choice of strategies seems to demonstrate nontraditional ideas about whether leaders are important and how change occurs." Many teachers said the label of "leader" sets a person apart from peers and diminishes his or her ability to bring about change. Leadership is a role played by one person in a group but the role seduces the leader into believing that he or she is the mouthpiece of the group; given a strong group of competent people, a leader may not be necessary. Secondary teachers value their autonomy and do

not wish to be led. As a group, teachers should exercise more control over the initiation and implementation of change;participatory decision making is critical.

Wilson proposes and rejects arguments that these teachers misunderstand the nature of leadership or are reluctant to give up teaching for leading (none wanted to be administrators). Her supposition is that they prefer a style of leadership not yet prevalent--a style Rosener calls feminine which relies on personal power based in charisma, work record, and contacts. These teachers also preferred shared leadership, with roles and tasks distributed among the group and individuals moving in and out of membership. Wilson wonders if "these teachers' hazy notions of leadership hint at a dynamic organizational form for which an organizational chart does not as yet exist." (27)

Wilson says these teachers are highly proficient with students but appear to be reluctant, incomplete leaders of colleagues due to misconceptions about leadership and professionalism. In addition, they seem to reject the leader's job because "they like neither the structure that props up leaders, nor the style the role requires." 27

Wilson hopes the school of the future will be a "formal but non hierarchical" system driven by teacher leaders.

Zimmerman, Joy. (October, 1993). Scaling the heights: Math cases build learning communities. In *Far West Focus*, Quarterly Newsletter, 1-4. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Notes: In a joint project between Far West Lab and a school district, math teachers used case discussions as a forum for collaboration. Math teachers wrote narrative cases of dilemmas; met monthly to reflect on the cases; decided that good teaching is not generic but different for different people, subjects, students, and settings; started to use their reflective skills in teaching math (including looking for options, considering advantages and disadvantages, looking for potential problems; found issues relevant to any content area (including using misunderstandings, having students learn from each other, raising issues of social justice and self-esteem; learning to see a subject through a student's eyes), and produced document and facilitator's guide now in press,

Dilemmas of Teaching: Math Cases to Promote Inquiry, Discussion and Reflection. Discussion and Reflection.

Zimpher, Nancy L. (1988, Jan-Feb). A design for the professional development of teacher leaders. *Journal of Teacher Education,* 39, (1), 53-60.

ERIC Abstract: The article discusses the benefits of teacher leader programs and outlines a schemata for a program of professional development for teacher leaders. The knowledge domain of a teacher leader program, such as local district needs and interpersonal development, is described. (JL)

JTE Abstract: Zimpher describes a teacher leader program that has been developed between a state university and a local school district. She outlines the benefits of teacher leadership programs and creates a schemata for teacher leader programming. The first schematic level focuses on professional development phases for teachers. The second level provides definition for several domains of knowledge that are critical to the preparation of teachers for leadership roles including: teacher needs assessment; interpersonal and adult development; classroom processes and school effectiveness; instructional supervision; and inquiry.

Additional Notes: Six initiatives in Ohio,(which is a microcosm for the nation regarding new roles for teachers), inform the need for programs for the professional development of teacher leaders.

Most notable is mentor programs for entry year teachers (the state has mandated mentor programs as other states have). Another kind is induction year programs (such as the OERI-sponsored OSU program with mentors and Teacher Leader Cadres). A third is teachers who participate in peer assessment programs (such as PAR through the AFT in Toledo). Another is career ladder positions (part of Holmes and Carnegie recommendations). Another kind of program is university/school collaborations (e.g., OSU and Columbus Public Schools). Finally, there are university degree programs (such as OSU's program for the Professional Development of Teachers). These efforts reflect the diversity of teacher leadership roles manifesting themselves and the need to prepare teachers for these new roles.

Why a program for teacher leadership? Teacher leadership must be an outgrowth of both expert practice and expert knowledge. A program should have a clear conceptualizations of the role and designations of areas of study that would inform the roles. A program also can explicate the knowledge base, has attributes of intervention that can be tested, assessed and evaluated for impact in informing and improving teacher leadership roles, is liked with totality of staff development in schools. A program also has two assumptions, an intention to particularize knowledge on how and what should be the focus of a teacher leader's assistance and that teacher leaders will attend to their own intellectual development intensively over time.

The author's schemata for a teacher leader development program has two tiers. The Continuum for the Professional Development of Teachers moves from Recruitment/Selection to Preservice to Induction to Inservice. The second tier is Five Knowledge Domains: Local District Needs, Interpersonal and Adult Development;, Classroom Processes and School Effectiveness, Instructional Supervision and Observation, a Disposition Toward Inquiry.

The continuum emphasizes teacher leaders being involved in all phases of professional development, noting that professional development is an ongoing activity and teacher leadership is only one of the multiple phases of teacher development.

The knowledge domains are not exclusive or hierarchical but operate concurrently. Local District Needs are addressed via needs assessments, individual district requirements for induction and leadership. Interpersonal and Adult Development includes the degree of psychological and emotional support needed to sustain leadership roles, relationships with teacher interns and colleagues they may advise, their knowledge of adult stage development. This domain assumes teacher leaders need to focus on self-awareness and understand notions of power, authority, and influence, and look at stages through which teachers pass situationally. Classroom Processes include knowledge bases from the research on teaching, self-inventories, theoretical orientations to teacher effectiveness and review of packaged instructional improvement plans. Instructional Supervision includes a broad range of classroom observation processes and ways of making meaning out of classroom life and practice as frameworks for making informed decisions about classroom activity and for becoming classroom

researchers. Disposition to Inquiry assumes teachers should be reflective about practice and use that reflection to improve classroom practice, which includes using sound information about what is happening, providing opportunities for collaborative action research, and using action teams to focus on problems and practice.

The program framework and practices grow out of current work with teachers, has changed over several years, and includes a concept of parity.